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Agricultural.

Wheat Growing.

While we do not think that wheat is now or is likely soon to be one of the most profitable crops in New England, or at least in such sections as are near our cities and manufacturing towns or are conveniently connected with them by railroads, yet we think there are parts where it can well be grown and at a reasonable profit, if there is a good sale or a good use for the straw upon the farm. It was not abandoned in Massachusetts because our soil had grown too poor for it, nor yet because of the expense of growing, but because the fertile fields of the Western States had taken to cultivating it in large tracts by modern machinery, and the railroads would bring us flour and the bran so cheaply, both for first cost of grain and for the transportation, that our farmers preferred the other crops of orchards, fields and garden to the crops of wheat.

Then, too, they had begun to devote their best lands, their manures or fertilizers to such crops as would yield larger returns to the acre, and had not learned to what an extent the average crop could be increased by the adoption of better methods. They had often tried to be contented with a yield of twelve to fifteen bushels of grain to the acre, though there were those who succeeded in growing twenty to thirty bushels. Even these last, called lucky by their less fortunate neighbors, were scarcely satisfied with the results when the grain sold at the dollar mark per bushel or below, while small fruit growers and market growers, specialists who had given much time and used large amounts of fertilizing material on some one crop, were boasting of the agricultural meetings or in the papers of crops that were valued at \$300 to \$400 per acre, and in some cases, perhaps, double those amounts. Those who made these boasts seldom told the cost of growing them, and never of the years when their favorite crops failed or the price went suddenly down.

But there is no need of being unable to grow more than thirty bushels of wheat to the acre, though the average for the United States is now, we think, below twenty bushels, and it is less in some of the very fertile States of the West than among the hills of New England. We have seen a field in New York that grew over fifty bushels per acre, while there are authenticated records of seventy-six and of eighty-two bushels per acre in England, and Scotland averaged over fifty bushels per acre more than a half century ago.

Why this difference? We believe that it is not the result entirely of soil and climate, but of the application of more careful, and, we might say, more scientific methods to the preparing the soil and selecting the seed. The selection of the soil has much to do with success in this as in other crops. It does not need a rich vegetable mould that has but little phosphate of lime and potash, as it needs the potash to keep the straw from falling and the phosphate to make a full, well-grown head of plump grain. Neither is a sandy soil much better, because it lacks in nitrogen and, perhaps, also, other elements of fertility. A clay soil may not lack in potash, but it may have had the other elements, or they may have been exhausted by previous cropping. A strong clay loam is usually good wheat land.

But one knowing the capabilities and needs of his soil can supply the lacking elements in his fertilizer or manure. He can add muck or manure to his light soils, and potash if they need it, or lime and phosphorus to his strong heavy soils, and in either case he may add phosphoric acid as liberally as his means will allow. He can plow under clover or leguminous crops to gather nitrogen more cheaply than he can buy it of the fertilizer dealers, and he can rotate his crops as to not exhaust the soil.

Adding fertilizers to the soil is not the only method of increasing the yield. Jethro Bull said many years ago that "tilage is manure." Farmers here may not feel inclined to cultivate among the wheat crop after it is up or in the spring, though there are places where it has been done where the seed was drilled in, with an increase of crop that seemed to pay for the labor. But they can work their land before sowing the seed. To plow the land early, and perhaps cross-plow or use the disc harrow until there is a seed bed of finely pulverized soil four inches deep, in which the seed will have been germinated, and the young weeds killed by three or four harrowings at intervals of a week before the seed is put in, would greatly increase the wheat crop as it would many other crops, and we think a rolling in the spring to press down the roots of such as may have been thrown out by the frost would often be beneficial, as would a harrow-

ing with a light smoothing harrow if a heavy rain causes the soil to bake down.

We are not such a stickler for deep plowing as many, even if the wheat roots do go down five or six feet. Plow from five to nine inches, as it may be possible without turning up much of a cold, clay subsoil. If the roots get a vigorous growth in the surface soil, they will go deeper if they need moisture.

The selection of the seed is of no small importance. There are now many new varieties that have obtained a reputation for producing larger crops than those in general use, but they do not seem to do equally well on all soils or in all localities. What has yielded the largest crop in one section of Canada proved inferior in another, when several of those thought best were tried in all the counties. It is even more probable that in New York or Ohio some other might prove better. Get that which

Dairy Notes.

The writer of one of the prize essays read before the Ohio State University claimed that the Red Polled cattle were so popular in some parts of the West as to be very numerous in the States of Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Kansas and Texas. They are among the oldest breeds in England, though long divided into the Norfolk Polled and the Suffolk Dun. These were so much alike that as long ago as 1846 they were classed as one breed, and called the Red Polled, and a herd book was established not long after in which all that gave evidence of being descended from either of these breeds could be registered. Their most prominent characteristics, as seen at first glance, are the absence of horns and of white in the hair. They may have some brindle marks among the dark red, and in some cases they have a little yellow, but not often. But a closer

and decompose, tainting and practically poisoning the air above it, beside wasting the most valuable of the fertilizing elements in the excrements, for both scientific and practical men are agreed that the liquid manure from the cow has more value than the solids. But little better is the cellar under the cow stables, although they may save the liquids to a greater extent if there is sufficient absorbent used in them. But the air in the stables has the odor of the decomposing manure below, and neither can the cows be healthy nor the milk be free from the odor of the manure heap, or the bacteria that is the cause of a rapid change in flavor of the butter after it has been made a few weeks. It is true that good butter used to be made from cows kept in barns so built, but in those days the barns were not tight, but well ventilated, too well we used to think, and the cows gave but little milk in the winter, and the milk did not remain

the future to anticipate but parched fields and drought-stricken crops, but as often as the Almighty has given the wheel another turn and provided us such copious supplies of water, these weather wise have withdrawn to seclusion and another troop of kickers appeared.

The purpose of this paper is, if possible, to encourage would-be sensible students of this important question to anchor to well-established moorings, regardless of the ebb and flow.

There is no doubt forests exert an important influence upon soil moisture, but because you possess a farm adjacent to large forest area, do not suppose it will be Ben Franklin's kite to bring down the storm elements at will.

The most effectual influence will be in sustaining and conserving soil moisture. The melting snows and copious rains of spring supply a reserve of water if there is

out entirely out, unless there is plenty of room for all to follow individual and profitable habits of growth, and there is little difference in value.

Time spent in trimming and thinning these young growths will pay a man \$5 per day. All deformed or sickly specimens of the kind decided upon to save should be promptly cut out, and those left carefully and thoroughly pruned.

All the lower branches from trees should be removed with a smooth cut close to the outer bark, but not cutting the bark of the body of the tree by any means. The severed base of the branch will then promptly grow over without a blemish, and the "knot" thus left in the wood will be absorbed and entirely disappear, whereas, if left till the tree has attained considerable size, the limb has a tendency to retain its individual form in the full grown and dressed lumber.

A good rule for trimming trees is to remove at each time they are pruned all the branches one-half the height of the tree from the ground up. And in thinning out a growth leave the trees selected to stand, as nearly an average as possible, the same number of feet apart as the trees are inches in diameter one foot from the ground.

These rules will well apply all the way from seedlings up to heavy forests. In planting trees for a windbreak, it is considered safe to reckon one rod of extent of shelter, on the lee side, for each foot of height the growth has attained. Of course, an abrupt slope will add to or discount, as the case may be, the rule being for level ground.

Having aided nature in her nursery thus, she will produce wood and timber for you fully twice as fast as alone. But, in thinning, always keep growing the most perfect and thrifty trees, notwithstanding the frequent advice to cut the largest, for if the smaller growth will pay you six per cent, dividends, the larger will surely pay twelve per cent, and when you have your crop ready for market, you will have a product you can command the market on, instead of having what everybody else has for sale.

When the practical farmer has completed well this task, he may consider the planting of new areas if he deems it wise, and then the kind of trees and location will be matters for consideration.

The number of trees for the common farmer to plant may wisely be counted on one hand, while the specialist may use several more in New England. From observation we would name them in what appeals to us as their profitable order, changing slightly for extreme north or south.

First, pine (white), which is so well adapted to so many of our waste lands of easy approach, and with its rapid growth bringing it to early merchantable size, so that the thinning may be turned to cash.

Second, silver poplar or American Aspen is in excellent demand for market, and grows quickly, is very free from surplus branches, and reaches such a height that it seems to pile up cords, while some others will grow halves. It will make good market product in twenty to thirty years. Cuts easily, and is light to haul, being marketed when peeled and dry.

Third, oak (red or white), though slower of growth and longer life, its unique position having great value with few competitors, and its ability to thrive in hard places and flourish where less hardy trees would succumb to the elements, makes it the *acme ultra* for exposed locations.

Spruce (white or red), though hardy and of slow growth, probably about one-fourth of our available lands would be specially adapted to its cultivation, considering the place it holds in the demand for lumber and paper.

Maple (rock or sugar) is very desirable for the combined uses of shade protection, wood, lumber and sugar or syrup, making a plantation on a favorable hillside a yearly pleasure and profit to the owner, and enhancing the permanent worth of the farm materially, in case a sale is for any reason contemplated.

Then, and perhaps often first, we would suggest the planting of a small plot to locust, which grows like a weed, grows very tall, straight-bodied and vies with red juniper (cedar) in its lasting qualities as fence posts and for other uses of like nature. A small plantation will prove a bonanza to any farmer and a surprise-party every time he goes for posts, stakes, etc.

Then if a brook runs through favorable land, and a little side income is wanted that will yield its fruit every season, try a strip of osiers or willows, and it will give the boys a chance for a little pocket money, for they will be ready for market while the boys are yet boys.

Of course, several other kinds are desirable, and will be planted by those who make forestry a business, but we have named those which when placed in congenial surroundings will be most likely to thrive under the common farmer's care.

A. J. HAMM.

Leighton's Corners, N. H.

Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture reports that of two lots of pears sent to England, one being wrapped with oiled paper around each pear, and the other unwrapped, the returns were sixty per cent better for the wrapped ones. Perhaps this may have been in part due to the fact that they were a novelty, or perhaps to an idea that such pears would not have been taken unless the fruit was of extra quality. But if none are wrapped in this way but the best fruit, it may be possible to keep up the higher prices on it until some one attempts to pass off an inferior lot by the wrapping. It costs but little for paper and wrappings for a box, and to add sixty per cent. to the selling price means much better returns to the shipper.



EMILY, 15-16 JERSEY.

Owned by R. I. Agricultural Experiment Station, Kingston, R. I.

has proven best in your own section, and then experiment with some of the others that have proved good in other sections. Get good, sound and plump seed, and it will throw up stronger and more vigorous plants than shrunken seed or that which is damaged by the Ayrshire when first fresh, but they have the faculty of holding out in the amount they give well up to the period of dropping the next calf, and their milk is second only to the Jersey and Guernsey in amount of the butter produced from the milk. Never owned her. She was what we call a good feeder, not requiring as much food as some others, but always eating what was placed before her, not being at all dainty. The years we fed her feed or sick during the years we owned her. She might have been only a cross-bred animal, for the males of that breed are noted for eliminating the horns and giving their color and form to the calves they get. As they taken fat readily when not giving milk, and are of very good size, they should come nearer suiting those who want the dual or threefold-purpose cow for milk, butter, and at last for beef.

English writer two centuries ago declared the butter produced from the Suffolk to be the pleasantest and best in England. Those who keep the Red Polled now claim high quality and weight of beef in proportion to the food consumed as one of the merits of the breed.

The Vermont Experiment Station has been for four years testing the value of apple pomace as ensilage. They found a ration of hay, with ensilage, one-third corn ensilage and two-thirds apple pomace ensilage by weight, with from four to eight pounds of grain per day, varying amount according to size and weight of animal, gave satisfactory results, and they have fed as high as fifteen pounds a day of apple pomace without any bad results. Cows continuously and heartily fed have not shrunk, but have held their milk flows remarkably well. Neither the milk nor butter were inferior in any way when the pomace was fed. Yet they suggest caution and watchfulness at the beginning of using it, as some have reported severe shrinkage at the beginning of using it. (This may have been because the pomace was so sour as to make the mouth sore or the gums, or from too liberal a feeding of it.) No special care is needed in putting it into the silo. Level it from time to time, and it may be left uncovered and unweighted. If an article which has heretofore been a nuisance can be made a good feed for milk cows, no more should be wasted.

Probably the worst feature in a dairy barn is a wooden floor through which the liquid manure can soak, to remain below it

long in the barn. And the winter-made butter was never called first-class, even when made by those who could and did make choice butter while the cows were milked out of doors.

We like a cement floor for all animals that will save all the liquid manure and carry it to a shed outside, in which the solids should be put every day or oftener in the winter, and which could be so arranged that the odors from it should not go back into the stable. This floor could be brushed clean every day, or even washed down when it was thought desirable, and the air in it kept as pure as the air out of doors.

And while we want a warm stable, we would have plenty of light. No animal can live long and be productive if confined in a place where the sunlight does not enter freely, and those who have provided their stables with windows often allow them to be so obscured by dirt and cobwebs that they are but semi-opaque, giving less light than ground glass. With pure air and sunshine there is but little chance for tuberculosis, while without them the stable becomes a breeding place for this as well as other diseases, and for the germs of all that makes the milk and butter just what it should not be.

Forestry on the Farm.

That all things in nature are related to each other and interdependent is a fact doubted by no one, yet often neglected in practical life by us all. The farmer's business, more than almost any other, depends on the true estimate of this fact for its ultimate and greatest success. So forestry has an important part in up-to-date farm practice.

It is being pushed to the front by many enthusiasts at the present time, who would in the hour of excitement lead sentimental people to see nothing left of our extensive area of forest growth but barren hills, denuded mountains, protruding ledges and valleys in disgrace.

Now, with all due respect and hearty support for the abstract aim of this movement, which is rightfully the replenishing of growth, where once cut over with a profitable succession, we hope they will not so stretch the thread of truth that when tested by common-sense, practical men it will break and cause a collapse of the whole scheme, leaving the operation of the project in the hands of erratic and over-zealous theorists to the detriment of the object.

Nevertheless, we are aware that you cannot get a tool sharpened on a grindstone without having a crank attached. We hope, however, this crank will not enquire the world with his comet-like sweep, to the extent farmers will believe the day of judgment at hand, and forsake their proper calling and legitimate practice, because forests are becoming beautifully less in some sections.

Certain theorists have periodically announced the discovery that the extensive cutting of growth had so influenced the dispensation of rain, that we had nothing in

a receptacle for it. The forest trees, with their vast network of roots and rootlets, provide an ideal reservoir for this holding capacity. It is then dispensed by evaporation and by diffusion through the soil, being scattered in vapors, which lay close to the fields in the early morning, both in dews and low-lying fogs, or filtered through nature's irrigation arteries and capillaries direct to the roots of our plants. Did you never notice that the greater amount of moisture growth is evaporating, the larger the supply of surface moisture in the soil at same time?

Hence if increased water supply with seasonal distribution on your farm is your wish, encourage forest growth on the higher lands which will favor your fields by gravitation. If you have never thought of this a little observation in your own town will prove it is fact rather than theory. A barren hilltop is losing its nitrate by every wind that blows, while one covered with tree growth is not only conserving these valuable elements, but dispensing them to the lands below.

By all means keep the springs which furnish your farm and buildings with water protected by some kind of growth on the higher lands.

This same practice will also insure you against unsightly and expensive water courses down your hillsides, acting as a safety valve in time of heavy rains.

This forest properly distributed will also temper the cold in winter and the heat in summer. Often the destruction of delicate fruits would be avoided, and their latitude limit removed materially northward, if a proper distribution of forest was made, for the sudden changes in temperature, enhanced by large range winds, usually do the damage. While the air, once warmed by the sun and undisturbed, will hold the mercury several degrees higher, when close to the frost line through the night, than where raked and disturbed by a wind from colder quarters, while blowing through the shadows in summer will add to the comfort of man, beast and crop.

There are some of the auxiliary advantages of the properly located forest to the farmer, but there is also the direct and practical side of the question. First, before devoting land which is now cultivated as valuable for either hay or grazing to the planting of forest trees, take a look over your farm or lands, and see what nature has already done for you. Where she has planted a thrifty growth of pine, spruce, poplar, oak, tamarack or other indigenous variety it will likely thrive, while if you should make the assignment you might not be so fortunate, to say nothing of the time she has already gained in the venture, and the risk she has insured you from in the loss of young seedlings.

In a lot of spontaneous growth it will often surprise one to see how quickly a hundred trees can be counted. These lots are frequently nearly all of one kind, and if so, all stray trees not maturing in similar length of time had better be cut out while young.

Where two species of nearly equal number exist, the most desirable for market and early maturity should be saved, the other

The Hay Trade.

Election Day has deprived us of our usual full report of the hay trade, but there are not many changes in condition from last week. In Boston good hay is firm, very little prime being received, and selling readily from the car at \$18.30 to \$19 per ton, and even higher in small lots. No. 1 has a good demand at \$17 to \$17.50, and a good No. 2 brings \$16, though rates run from that down to \$14, as it looks to buyer and dealer. The lower grades are unchanged in price, but they are dull and hard to sell, excepting when one takes them because he cannot find the better quality. Straw is quiet, and while prime now is nominally \$12.50 to \$14, choice lots would sell above those figures if they were offered.

In New York the best grades are in moderate supply and steady, at \$20 for prime and No. 1 at \$18 to \$19, No. 2 at \$16 to \$17.50. The lower grades are plenty and easy, at \$12 to \$14 for No. 3, \$13 to \$15 for clover mixed and \$10 to \$13 for clover, with stock accumulating.

The Interstate Commerce Commission has decided that, in the case of the National Hay Association against the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railway Companies and other railways, the carriers acted unlawfully in advancing hay and straw from sixth to fifth-class rates on Jan. 1, 1930.

The conclusion of the commission is as follows: "After giving full and careful consideration to all of the facts and circumstances and the arguments of counsel in this case, we are of the opinion that the defendants are mistaken in having believed that hay and straw were improperly classified and carried by them as sixth-class freight, and that their action on Jan. 1, 1930, whereby those commodities were raised to fifth class, and thereby charged fifth-class rates, was unreasonable and unjust, and resulted in an unlawful discrimination and prejudice against hay and straw localities in official classification territory wherein those commodities are produced, and against producers, shippers, dealers and consumers of such articles in that section of the country."

This will be good news to Eastern dealers in hay, and through them to their customers, as the difference in rates made a decided advance in prices at the Eastern markets, and dealers were obliged to pay it and take their chances of receiving it from their customers.

Butter Market.

There is little or no change in the butter market. The demand has been light, and receivers have not been able to clean up, although receipts have fallen off. There have been large withdrawals from cold storage and small dealers are taking them instead of fresh arrivals. New York holds prices one-half to one cent above Boston, and Western markets are strong, with an apparently good trade. Election day made Tuesday's trade very light. While the best grades of creamery are nominally 24 to 24 1/2 cents, few large lots sold above 24 cents. Best marks of Eastern are held at 23 cents and fair to good at 20 to 22 cents. First were 22 to 23 cents for Northern and Western and seconds at 20 to 21 cents. Extra-hold creamery brought 23 to 24 cents and firsts 22 to 23 cents. Boxes and prints were steady, with fair demand at 24 to 25 cents for extra Northern creamery, 22 to 23 cents for extra dairy and 19 to 21 cents for fair to good. Dairy in tubs is 22 cents for Vermont extra and 21 cents for New York extra. First 19 to 20 cents and seconds 14 to 16 cents. Imitation creamery in only moderate demand at 19 cents for extra and 18 cents for firsts. Ladies dull at 17 to 18 cents. Renovated selling at 21 cents for extra and 18 to 19 cents for fair to good.

The receipts of butter at Boston for the week ending Nov. 15 were 13,063 tubs and 22,801 boxes, a total weight of 691,225 pounds, against 709,063 pounds for the previous week and 694,068 pounds the corresponding week last year. This shows a further falling off from the week previous and last year. Included in the week's receipts were 694 pounds in transit for export. In last year's receipts were 81,170 pounds for export.

The exports from Boston last week were 3334 pounds. For the corresponding week last year the exports were 35,031 pounds. From New York no exports were reported last week. The exports from Montreal for the week were 7006 packages, against 5813 packages corresponding week last year.

The Quincy Market Cold Storage Company reported a stock of 263,022 tubs, against 162,457 tubs same time last year, having taken in 2507 tubs and put out 7017 tubs. The Eastern Company reported a stock of 41,800 tubs, against 23,451 tubs last year. With these holdings added, the total stock is 247,082 tubs, against 185,908 tubs, an increase for this year of 62,074 tubs. The net reduction in stock last week was 5813 tubs, against 5218 tubs same time last year.

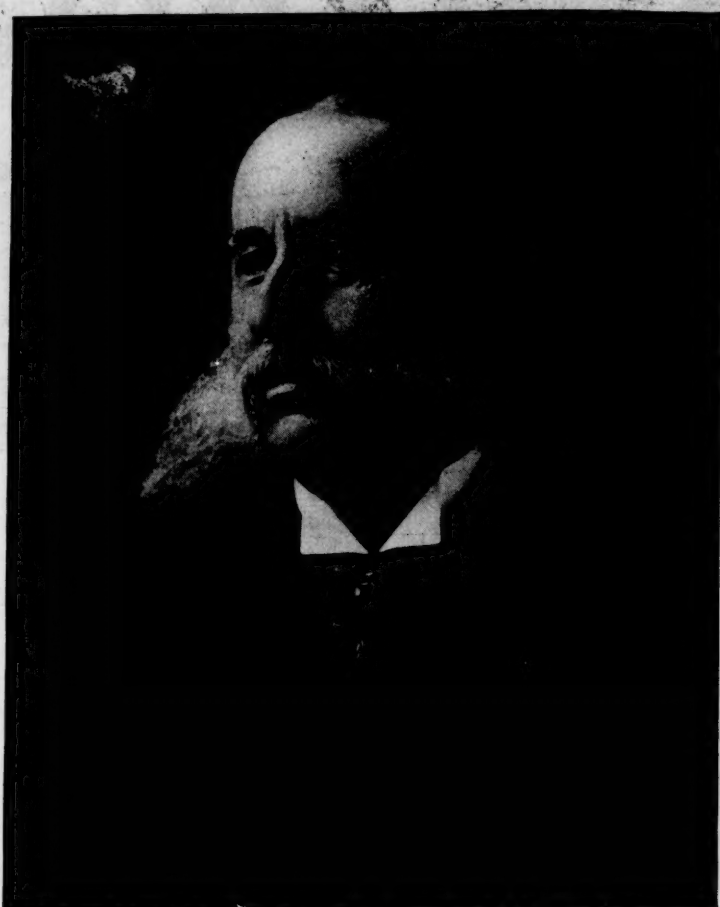
The summary of October trade shows 10,777,480 pounds on hand Sept. 29, and receipts during the month of 3,983,129 pounds, a total of 14,760,609 pounds; 4954 pounds were exported, and 9,919,280 pounds on hand Nov. 1, showing a consumption of 4,836,375 pounds during the month, against 5,361,506 pounds in September. In 1931, there were on hand 8,407,200 pounds at the beginning of the month, and 4,742,156 pounds were received, making the total supply 13,149,356 pounds; 363,215 pounds were exported, and there were on hand Nov. 1, 4,786,320 pounds, showing a consumption of 5,409,521 pounds in the month, against 4,024,192 pounds in September. These figures do not show how much the private storerooms may have been drawn upon, and dealers do not think the consumption has fallen off so much as indicated here.

Massachusetts Crop Report.

In its crop report for October, the final issue of the season, the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture includes the following summary of crop conditions throughout the state, compiled from the reports of about 150 correspondents:

Corn was very backward throughout the season and in localities where early frosts occurred was almost a total failure, both for grain and stover. Elsewhere a partial crop of both was secured, but in all localities there were many fields which made very poor yields. The crop was better in eastern sections than in the western counties, but nowhere did it approach an average crop. Probably the value of the crop is not far from two-thirds of the normal, taking all parts of the State into consideration, and also considering the value of the grain and stover, and of that portion of the crop raised for ensilage.

Root crops generally proved to be good average crops, the number reporting them to be below the average being fully balanced by those who speak of them as being extra good. Potatoes are a light crop as a whole, owing to rot, but very good prices have prevailed. Celery appears to be a very good crop.



(Photo by Notman.)

MR. HENRY M. UPHAM,

Who retired from business yesterday after 36 years' connection with the "Old Corner Bookstore."

Feed in pastures has been good throughout the season, and still continues green in most cases. Farm stock is, therefore, almost invariably reported to be in good condition, and will go into the barns for the winter in prime flesh and good condition as regards health.

Less than the usual amount of fall seeding has been done, farm work being behind the first part of September and the frequent rains since then having made the fitting of the ground difficult. That which was put in early is in excellent condition, the frequent rains having been very beneficial. Late seeding made a good catch, but is of course, somewhat backward for the time of year.

Of the 141 correspondents answering the question in regard to prices received for crops raised for market, 70 speak of them as average, 66 as higher than usual and 5 as lower than usual. The general trend of prices seems to have been upward, although shortages or particular crops doubtless operated to increase the movement.

There is the usual diversity of opinion among correspondents as to the crops which have proved most profitable, sixty-two, less than a majority, uniting on potatoes. Forty-one consider hay to have been among the most profitable crops; thirty-two, apples; ten, oats; eight, corn; seven, tobacco; seven, cranberries; six, cabbages; six, sweet corn; six, strawberries. Sixty-four correspondents, an unusually large number to unite on any one crop as among the least profitable, speak of corn as among the least profitable crops; twenty-seven, potatoes; nine, hay; seven, tomatoes; six, apples.

Judging from the returns the present season has not been an unprofitable one for our farmers as a whole, although perhaps not up to some recent years in profit. Corn and potatoes are the only principal crops which show a shortage, and in the case of the latter good prices somewhat compensate for the short crop. Good prices received for most crops together with quick sales have been factors making for profit.

Of the 144 correspondents answering the question in regard to the profits of the season sixty-two consider the season as profitable, eleven as above the average for profit, sixteen as an average one for profit and eighteen as fairly profitable, while thirty-seven think that it has not been a profitable one.

This report will also contain selected reports of correspondents, information as to climate and crop conditions throughout the country, and an article on "Greenhouse Construction and Management," by Prof. S. T. Maynard. It may be obtained by application to Hon. J. W. Stockwell, Secretary State Board of Agriculture, State House, Boston.

New York's First Lumbermen.

A history of the lumber industry in this State has just been issued by the Department of Agriculture. It was prepared by Col. William F. Fox, superintendent of forests in this State, and contains historical matter, which Gifford Pinchot, head of the United States Bureau of Forestry, says is in this work made readily accessible for the first time.

The first lumbermen in this State, says Colonel Fox, were the first settlers, who cleared spaces in the primeval forests for their homes and farms. The rough lumber for their cabins they made with their axes, in the use of which they were very expert. Saws, operated by hand power, came next, and then before many years the sawmill. In many instances the sawmill preceded the gristmill, and in a few places the erection of the mill antedated the advent of the first settlers.

Colonel Fox says that the widespread impression that lumbermen are responsible for the lack of forests in many parts of this State is erroneous. From the time of the early settlers to the present day lumbermen have never resorted to clearing work.

It is the farmer who is responsible for the absence of forests. In clearing his land the farmer has always cut and burned every brush and tree in his way. The lumberman, on the contrary, takes only a few scattered trees from each acre, confining his selections to merchantable species.

In 1614, when the first houses were built on Manhattan Island and at Albany, New York was forest-covered throughout. It was a silent, unbroken wilderness, which in grandeur and undeveloped wealth was unsurpassed in all the region of the Atlantic coast.

In this forest the valuable white pine was plentiful and conspicuous everywhere by its towering size. The height of these white pines ranged from 130 to 160 feet, with a diameter, breast high, of from two to four feet. In some localities there were trees of even greater size, some said to have been 250 feet high and eighty inches in diameter. There is a record of one white pine, cut in the town of Meredith, Delaware Co.,

that measured 247 feet in length as it lay on the ground. Pine street in this city, it is said, took its name from the magnificent pines that once adorned the farm of Jansen Damien.

A sawmill was built and operated by colonists here one hundred years before there was one in England. It was the direct result of the conditions and demands of the lumber industry here.

As villages sprang up and became important trading-posts, the demand for building material and ship-timber was greater than the supply. Large timbers for house and ship-building were hewn out and squared with the broad axe by men who were expert with this tool, while the planks, boards and boat-sides were made by pit-sawing.

In 1625, nine years after the first house was built at New Amsterdam, three sawmills were erected by the Dutch West India Company, and with their erection the history of lumbering in this State really begins. These mills were shipped from Holland and run by water power or wind power. One was built on Governor's Island, and another stood on Sawmill creek, a tributary of the East river.

In 1639 the Governor's Island mill was leased at an annual rental of five hundred merchantable boards, half ash, half pine. About the same time some sawmills were built at Fort Orange (Albany) and the growth of the industry is shown in a letter from the Earl of Bellomont to the Lords of Trade in England, dated Jan. 2, 1701. It is as follows: "They have got about forty sawmills up in this province (the province of New York), which, I hear, ride more goods or destroy more timber than all the sawmills in New Hampshire. Four saws are the most in New Hampshire that work in one mill, and here is a Dutchman, lately come over, who is an extraordinary artist at those mills. Mr. Livingston told me this last summer, he had made him a mill that went with twelve saws. A few such mills will quickly destroy all the woods in the province at a reasonable distance from them."

The lumbermen of New Amsterdam were an enterprising lot, shipping lumber to Holland as early as 1626, three years after the first shipment of immigrants arrived, and later to England. The good ship Arms of Amsterdam carried the first consignment of lumber from here to Holland, and in 1675 the ship Castle carried a cargo of timber valued at £400 from New York to England.

Early lumbering was a dangerous business, and Colonel Fox says that it is remarkable to find how often the first death in a new settlement was the result of a falling tree, a log crush or a sawmill accident. There are records of curious accidents in the early days, a characteristic one found in the records of the town of Middlebury, Wyoming Co., being as follows:

"In May, 1817, Artemas Shattuck went into the woods to chop. While cutting off a log that had been partially split open, his foot was caught in the crack, and he hung for a long time suspended by his foot and partly supported by one hand. Despairing of receiving aid, he finally unjoined his ankle with his pocketknife, made a clutch of a crooked stick, and started for the house."

The local market of sawmills was limited to the distance which the lumber could be transported on wagons. There were no canals or railroads to furnish an outside market, and so rafting was resorted to.

Arthur Noble of Herkimer County rafted a lot of lumber down West Canada creek to the Mohawk and thence to Cohoes Falls, from where it was carted to Albany, placed on sloops and shipped to Ireland as early as 1790. Edward Edwards ran the first raft down the Chenango river from what is now the town of Lisle, in 1796.

Rafting opened the world to many young men. It was a life of peril, this rafting, but there was no lack of men to undertake the work, and so important did rafting ventures become that the entire commercial prosperity of a place often depended on the success of the raftsmen. All notes given, says Colonel Fox, were made payable "when the rafts get back."

Colonel Fox tells about rafting on the Hudson, Susquehanna and other rivers in the State, and gives a long and technical description of the construction and handling of a lumber raft. There is an interesting account of the early opposition to the use of streams for the purpose of floating logs to the mills, which was gradually overcome by the passage of laws declaring rivers public highways. The first law of this kind was passed in this State in 1806.

This log driving was a dangerous business, and Colonel Fox tells something of it. He says:

"In the lake region of the Adirondacks, river drivers had the additional task of moving their logs through the lakes, where there was no current to assist their progress, but too often a contrary wind, that drove their logs back or scattered them, in passing through these lakes lumbermen

generally rafted the logs or inclosed them in strongly connected booms, and then warped their way through the open water by using an anchor, a long heavy cable, and an upright windlass placed on the forward end of a strongly constructed raft."

"This work was often done at night, or whenever the lake was still and free from the strong winds, so prevalent in early spring. Old river drivers, in telling of the early log-drives, still describe how, through the long hours and darkness, they leaned wearily against the capstan bars as they tramped round and round the platform while 'kedging' their way through the lakes."

"The work of the river drivers was perilous. Scarcely a season passed without some one being drowned or killed on some stream."

"Men were crushed under swift-rolling logs at the banking grounds, chilled to death in the icy waters, or killed in breaking the great jam which formed at every obstruction in the river. The most dangerous work was usually done by volunteers, and if all the deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice performed by river drivers while attempting to save the life of some comrade in danger were recorded, they would be found to equal anything in the histories of fire, flood or battlefield."

"The drivers were necessarily men of stalwart build and superb physique. With surprising agility they would leap from log to log while they were running down the rapid, swirling current, and, standing upright on a small log, with nothing to aid them but a pike pole or lever, they would guide their treacherous craft as skillfully as an Indian his canoe."

Colonel Fox's account of modern lumbering methods makes an interesting contrast to the early methods. He has devoted considerable space to the matter, and the work is one of the most exhaustive on any subject ever issued by the Department of Agriculture.

Literature.

Sir Alfred Lyall, K. C. B., is the author of the life of Tennyson in the English Men of Letters Series, one of the latest additions to this notable series of biographies. "It is in Tennyson's poetry, moreover, that we must look for the chronicle of his life," writes Sir Alfred as he introduces his subject. Tennyson's father was a man of various talents, somewhat of a poet, a painter, an architect and a musician. In the schools at the time of Tennyson's childhood, punishments were frequent and rough, so that "a child lived between the fear of the master's rod and the bullying of his big schoolmates, and probably learned little more than the habit of endurance. But Tennyson's school of experiences, though early, were fortunately short, for after two years he was removed from Louth, and it appears that for the next ten years he was taught at home by his father, whose school was considerably better."

Before Tennyson left Cambridge his poems, chiefly his lyrics, were published. Thus, a new poet had arisen and was welcomed. Political and religious questions crowded themselves upon the poet, who by his poems announced that he was a thinking man. As the biographer says: "In his religious speculations he ponders over the question why God created souls, knowing they would suffer and sin, and finds it unsatisfactory except in the firm hope of universal good as the outcome, which is the reasoned conclusion of those who find the design of human life in this world unintelligible unless another world is brought in to redress the balance, and which is thus the mainspring and support of belief in a further existence." Of Tennyson's dramatic monologues, Sir Alfred considers Ulysses to be the finest in purity of composition and drawing of character, and Tithonus the most beautiful conception of the mythological Greek and poet in harmonious verse. Arthur Hallam died at Vienna in 1835. Some of the sections of Tennyson's monumental eulogy upon his friend were written very soon afterwards, and their number had rapidly increased by 1841, when Edmund Lushington first saw the collection and heard the poet recite some of them. In 1850 "In Memoriam" was published, the outcome of seventeen years of meditative composition.

"Of all Tennyson's continuous poems," says the biographer, "it is the longest and most elaborate; it affected profoundly the minds of the generation among whom it appeared; it embodies the writer's philosophy upon the ever-present subject of life and death, upon all the problems suggested by the mutability of the world's face and forms, and on questions whether human mortality may not fall within the scope of the universal natural law, whether faith in things spiritual is a true intuition or no more than a hopeful conjecture than a painting of shadows that are beneath. The wide winding caves of the people tomb. Following "In Memoriam" came "Maud," the "Idylls of the King" and "Enoch Arden," which contrasts the style of the former. The pastorals, among which poems is the "May Queen," are annals of the village, in youth and age, told seriously and sweetly. Sir Alfred Lyall has presented Tennyson, the poet, and his words bespeak deep thought and firm conclusions. He analyzes keenly Tennyson's poems, and renders clear that which may seem dim to the reader. The book does justice to its eminent subject. Sir Alfred Lyall treats the honored poet laureate of England with a sweet dignity of manner, evidences his sympathy with Tennyson, and denotes his admiration for his poems. At the same time he estimates fairly the talents which the great poet possessed without dwelling at length on his private life. (New York: The Macmillan Company. Price, 75 cents, net.)

Charles G. D. Roberts gives us his usual fine descriptions of nature's moods and surroundings, his characters with the healthy atmosphere of the green fields and the glad, some sunshine in this new book, "Barbara Laid." Miss Barbara is herself the child of nature with varying moods which often lead her into reckless adventures. Her guardian, Uncle Bob, has placed her in the care of her aunt, Mistress Mehitabel, whom Barbara calls Aunt Hitty. Her aunt is reinforced in her guardianship by the aid of Dr. Jim and Dr. John, two brothers, who constitute themselves protectors of Barbara and indulgent mitigators of Mistress Mehitabel's conscience. There is a love tale between these two brave, strong men and Mistress Mehitabel; each considers the other preferred, so the years roll by and the lady remains unmarried. The entrance of Barbara into their midst furnished many excuses for frequenting her home. For these two men Barbara entertains a firm affection, but there seems to be a constant misunderstanding between her and her aunt. Because of this Barbara determines to run away to her uncle. She makes the attempt, but is captured by Dr. Jim and Dr. John,

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carried back home, accompanied also by Robert Gault, whose acquaintance she made on her trip. The next day her aunt had a long talk with Barbara, concluding with, "I failed to realize that you are no longer a little girl, but nearly a grown woman. Many girls are grown women at your age, Barbara, so that I have decided on something which may surprise you. From this time forward I shift my responsibility for you largely on your own shoulders and shall hope to be more your friend than your guardian. I hand you over to yourself, Barbara. You must learn to discipline yourself." From that day a warm friendship existed between Barbara and Mistress Mehitabel, although patience was an article used in quantities by both parties. Robert Gault became Barbara's devoted admirer, although the capricious maid caused his heart many an ache. Ramblings of the Revolutionary war soon filled the air of this Connecticut village. Barbara went to New York to shine in Colonial society there as her Uncle Bob's ward. Robert became an officer in the King's service, and as a result, Barbara, an ardent Colonial patriot, hardened her heart against him. A duel fought by Robert because of her caused a temporary cessation of the strained relations, but although Barbara avoided all reference to politics, the questions had to be finally settled. She almost pleaded with the young man to leave the King's side and join her own, but not even for his great love would Robert prove traitor to the cause which he had espoused. The war becoming serious, Barbara returned to her aunt's. There anxious days were passed. Barbara soon knew that she would welcome Robert regardless of the side he had taken in the conflict, and when she discovered him wounded and apparently dead, near her own home—well, the reader may imagine the outcome. Barbara Ladd is a fascinating heroine, whose love of nature recalls Miranda in "The Heart

of the Ancient Woods." The manliness of Robert Gault, the loving unselfishness of Dr. Jim and Dr. John, the fine, gentle qualities of Mistress Mehitabel and the kindly Uncle Bob are all characters we will loathe to leave. Ever "Old Debby," the old woman living alone in her cabin, to whom Barbara carried all her troubles in childhood, is made real to the reader. The whole book manifests fine, sympathetic and generous instincts. (Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Price, \$1.50.)

(This is a book of illustrated recipes, called by its author, Mary Ronald, "A Cook's Picture Book." The term is well used, for the contents are arranged in a most attractive form, with illustrations of the dishes of which recipes are given. Two hundred and eight photographs illumine the 223 pages. The arrangement of the book makes it possible for the housekeeper to readily make up a menu, and easily find new dishes to vary the monotony of the daily fare. The first of the fourteen chapters is a dissertation on the preparing and giving of luncheons, and the balance contains recipes for all the dishes that can be prepared for every kind of a luncheon. The illustrations show tempting dishes, properly garnished and ready for serving. The chapter on breads is particularly interesting. Americans, as a rule, do not prepare fancy breads as much as some other nations, the English or French, for example. The preparation of salads has been given special attention, and there are recipes for many varied kinds. Meats are arranged in most pleasing ways for serving. Garnishing with potato is a favorite way, especially in soft-dish dishes. To serve food in a tempting manner is a fine art, and the housekeepers would find that their dishes would be relished more if care were given to the manner of serving the desired food. A little care could be most profitably spent in this study. All housekeepers will find this book most valuable, both in the matter of entertaining and in preparing every-day menu courses. (New York: The Century Company. Price, \$1.40 net.)

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What the commissioners don't know about coal mines will be hardly worth knowing.

Spiritualism awaits with interest the rappings of the last member of the Fox family.

If one must commit murder, it would seem as if a tombstone agent is as natural an object as any.

If the chrysanthemums get much bigger the Horticultural Society will have to build yet another new hall.

It is difficult to see anything over impulsive in the time taken by President Roosevelt to study his ballot.

Was there not a certain degree of emotionalism, in fact, almost an object lesson, in Dr. Brady's answer to President Eliot?

Now and then the wild animal still gets a chance to laugh at the fatal cases of mistaken identity on the part of its hunters.

Balzac, perhaps, could explain the state of mind of a young man of independent fortune who became a book agent for love of the business.

A large part of the population joins with the President and members of the cabinet in their regret over the attitude of sensational journalism toward the King of Spain.

For oratorical purposes the contrast between Governor Taft's banquet and the rice famine in the Philippines is rather spoiled by the fact that rice is not an important item in state dinners.

Vigoro, the name of the newest game in merry England, looks a good deal like a patent medicine or a new cereal; in practice, however, the game is apparently a cross between lawn tennis and cricket.

Who was the Boston laureate who wrote those beautiful lines recently quoted in the Sun:

As you travel to and fro, you may look at H. O. But never, never touch it. O. no, no, no.

Boston has a new cooking school; yet we seem as far as ever from the time when the anxious wife of the plain man can be taught a few helpful hints toward palatably preparing the plain man's plain dinner.

There is a difference of opinions as to the reasons that have separated Mr. and Mrs. Booth-Clibborn from Dowism, but the army explanation has the advantage of wider respect among the general public.

Another daughter of the States suing for divorce from her titled husband! Even the optimist finds it difficult to believe that the percentage of blanks is not disproportionately large in this division of the great lottery.

Rockland continues to be famous. A short time ago it was visited by Miss Mary McLane, and now it has been the scene of spirited combat between rival swains over the charms of a seventeen-year-old water girl.

"Critics," said Mr. Sydney Grundy in London the other day, "exist only for themselves and their papers, and ought, therefore, to be better paid." Even in Boston critics will agree that the latter part of the statement is impeccable.

That imperialism is not all beer and skittles is rather evident in the inclined discontent among the younger officers in the army. The excitement of war is one thing, and the monotony of living in barracks after it is over is quite another.

"Nothing on earth," says a Boston critic, who has certainly had plenty of opportunity to form an opinion, "will induce a Bostonian to go to any opera he has not been to before—unless he is too young to know better and is taken by his parents."

It would be more than interesting if modern science should compel Father Time to give back to moderns the gifts bestowed upon him by the ancients. And little enough sympathy would be got from the host of men whose youth was marred by compulsory declaiming of Horatius.

The pleasant little anecdote now going the rounds and telling how the late John W. Mackay once ordered a single orchestra stall for his friend Florence's benefit performance, and later paid for it with a \$1000 check, shows not only a little experience in choosing the best place from which to see a play.

The Lewiston Journal agrees with Mr. Stanwood, Bowdoin, '61, that the class prophecy is vulgar, crude and boorish—prophecy is "as gloomy a quarter of an hour as there is between birth and death." The picture is not one to encourage a mad rush for seats at Bowdoin commencement exercises.

When one dissects Mr. Elbert Hubbard's statement that he trusts the key of the Boycroft establishment to an ex-convict, in whom he has perfect confidence, one finds that the statement means no more than many others that have emanated from East Aurora. Who wouldn't trust an ex-convict, or any one else, for that matter, in whom he had perfect confidence?

Mr. Corey of Braddock, Pa., is the latest contributor to the gallery of the nations. The gentleman doesn't approve of progressive eucure—whether this is mere conservatism is not stated—at church socials; furthermore, having been invited to such a function, he has indignantly declined through the columns of a daily paper; finally he has attempted to guard against any further invitations by requesting the Pope to issue a bull.

Somebody made a curious error in selling the property of Annie Clarke at auction

without giving Boston an invitation to be present. Those who attended the sale at Needham had little feeling for theatrical souvenirs, and a serviceable waste-paper basket brought a larger price than the manuscript copy of the epilogue spoken at the close of "The Woffington" when Miss Clarke left the Museum.

A contemporary, referring to the troubles of the Italian Opera Company, speaks of the members as "stranded in a new country." The statement admits of two explanations. Either the opera company in question is well used to being stranded, or else one of the English-speaking members has tided over his own personal distress by turning reporter.

Fall Plowing.

Owing to the light fall rains but little has been done toward fall plowing, as the soil has been so dry that it made plowing hard for the teams to turn the sod, especially in the breaking of sod land. But of late we have had rains, so that even late in the season much can yet be done in this direction before the ground freezes up.

On some soils we think that fall plowing is highly beneficial. Such soil as the stiff clay and the hard gravelly soil, which is hard to plow of a sufficient depth for the roots of the plants to penetrate and flourish as they should, fall plowing we have found, after a life upon the farm for the past twenty-five years, highly beneficial.

The freezing and thawing serves to pulverize the soil, and by practicing this method for a series of years we can render such soil much finer, and also serves to deepen the soil yearly, as the frost penetrates each season deeper and deeper, so we are able to run the plow deeper each year, and thus make an improvement in the top soil, and this is just what this hard and stiff soil actually needs to make it suitable for the growing crops. No crop can make a successful showing on such a hard soil even when dressed very highly.

If our farmers who have such soil to work would keep this question in view, the gradual deepening of the soil, much improvement would be reached. No matter if we keep the land under the plow for three or four seasons before seeding to grass, as this method of treatment will certainly pay, only give it a fair dressing while cropping.

We once had a low field, which was partially a stiff clay, with an occasional patch of mucky soil to treat, and I was intending to get it into good grass as soon as I could, as it only bore a cheap quality of hay, being somewhat swaley, so I tried the late fall treatment of plowing, and the help of elements, the freezing and thawing process for a series of four seasons, and then sowed to grass, and the thorough deepening made it one of the best hay fields upon the farm; good, clean timothy hay took the place of the cheap hay, which it produced before treatment, and all this with fair dressing for two seasons before seeding down to grass.

Quality in Beef.

The Kansas Experiment Station, in a bulletin issued last May, reports the results of feeding six steers selected for that purpose in the Kansas City stock yards. As they were to be used as a method of instructing the students there, they were purposely different in character. The man who selected them thus described them: "The Shorthorn grade is just fair, but indicates quality; the Angus grade is nearly typical and has big flesh; the Jersey is rather extra; the Holstein is somewhat light-fleshed, partaking more of the dairy than the beef element; the red scrub is light-fleshed and coarse—red, but not a Short-horn; the spotted scrub shows more Short-horn of a common family, and has a characterless head. Both scrubs are about the stamp an unsophisticated breeder breeds for and feeds at. They have plenty of daylight under them, are woefully light in the thigh and are without indications of twist. They were put on feed Aug. 28, and were fed until March 21, a period of 205 days. The feed was corn, corn chop and alfalfa hay. The Shorthorn weighed 1041 pounds at the beginning and gained 395 pounds. The Angus weighed 882 pounds and gained 288 pounds. The Jersey weighed 862 pounds and gained 348 pounds. The Holstein weighed 886 pounds and gained 411 pounds. The red scrub weighed 1052 pounds and gained 435 pounds, and the spotted scrub weighed 1064 pounds and gained 306 pounds; average gain 364 pounds. The Angus was in good condition when the feeding began, and the others were thin.

The Shorthorn required 978 pounds of corn and 546 pounds of hay for each one hundred pounds of gain. The Angus 1138 pounds of corn and 504 pounds of hay, the Jersey 936 pounds of corn and 508 pounds of hay. The Holstein 816 pounds of corn and 508 pounds of hay. The red scrub 770 pounds of corn and 491 pounds of hay and the spotted scrub 1043 pounds of corn and 692 pounds of hay, an average of 947 pounds of corn and 537 pounds of hay. The Holstein and red scrub were the only ones that required less than the average of both grain and hay.

When fattened the Shorthorn weighed 1436 pounds alive, and of the dressed weight 912 was meat, 73 pounds was tallow and 86 pounds hide. The Angus weighed 1170 pounds, of which 735 was meat, 493 tallow, 503 hide. The Jersey weighed 1210 pounds, of which 720 was meat, 923 tallow, 85 hide. The Holstein weighed 1297 pounds, of which 774 was meat, 343 tallow and 873 hide. The red scrub weighed 1487 pounds, of which 819

pounds was meat, 60 tallow and 963 hide. The spotted scrub weighed 1370 pounds, of which 818 was meat, 713 tallow and 933 hide.

Taking it by percentages, the Shorthorn had 63.5 of dressed meat, five per cent. tallow and six per cent. of hide of the live weight. The Angus had 63.6 per cent. dressed beef, 4.2 per cent. tallow and 6.9 per cent. hide. The Jersey had 59.5 per cent. of dressed beef, 7.6 per cent. tallow, seven per cent. hide; the Holstein 59.6 per cent. dressed meat, 4.5 per cent. tallow, 6.7 per cent. hide; the red scrub 59.8 per cent. dressed beef, four per cent. tallow, 6.4 per cent. hide; the spotted scrub 59.7 per cent. dressed meat, 5.2 per cent. tallow and 6.1 per cent. hide.

Prices quoted by Swift & Co., Kansas City, on April 23, were loin twenty cents a pound, rib nineteen cents, round eleven cents, chuck nine cents, brisket nine cents, plate seven cents, flank seven cents, neck five cents and shank three cents. The Shorthorn and Angus or beef breeds averaged 27.8 per cent. of the two higher-priced cuts. The Jersey and Holstein or dairy breeds averaged 27.5 per cent. best cuts and the two scrubs 26.7 per cent. best cuts.

An extensive feeder and shipper estimated the market value of the steers when finished at 85 cents a pound for the Shorthorn, 75 cents for Angus, eight cents for Jersey, 75 cents for Holstein, 75 cents for red scrub and seven cents for spotted scrub. The wholesale value of the meat was less than the value as estimated when alive by \$14.38 on Shorthorn, \$18 on Angus, \$15 on Jersey, \$11.35 on Holstein, \$18.75 on red scrub and \$21.52 on spotted scrub.

The steers were fed corn and corn chop which cost the station an average of \$1.30 per 100 pounds, and alfalfa hay which cost \$10 per ton. The loss in fattening, adding cost of feed to the first cost of steers and their value when fattened deducted, was \$7.35 on Shorthorn, \$7.30 on Angus, \$5.39 on Jersey, \$11.80 on Holstein, \$3.34 on red scrub and \$8.92 on spotted scrub, an average loss of \$7.30.

The prices at which the steers were valued when ready for the market were high, but the unusual high cost of feed caused a loss in feeding every steer. These statements show plainly why the man who buys meat for his table has to pay high prices when feed costs so much.

Fortunately for the station, we had hogs following the steers to pick up the droppings. For reasons not connected with this test it was necessary to change the hogs frequently and vary the number, so that no accurate account could be kept of the gain of the hogs. We greatly regret this. Work in previous feedings shows two hundred pounds of pork per steer from seven months feeding, and it is probable that more pork was made in this feeding. The hogs, therefore, covered the loss on the steers and left a balance for labor and profit.

The cost of feed for each one hundred pounds of gain was as follows: Shorthorn, \$15.41; Angus, \$17.31; Jersey, \$15.16; Holstein, \$15.16; red scrub, \$14.15; spotted scrub, \$17.02. Average, \$15.20.

The dressed carcasses of the steers were used in a class demonstration on quality of beef given to our college classes in judging beef cattle. Mr. John Gosling of Kansas City, an expert judge of beef cattle and of beef, gave the lecture, and Mr. Charles Anthony, head cutter for A. Weber, the largest retailer of meat in Kansas City, cut up the carcasses before the class as Mr. Gosling lectured. Extracts from Mr. Gosling's lecture follow, as they explain the differences in the character of the meat from the different steers.

Mr. Gosling said: The dairy-bred steers have done better than I expected they would. An animal that yields thirty to thirty-two per cent. of high-priced cuts, ribs and loins, trimmed and uniformly gauged for acceptance by the hotel trade, is something extreme.

We find that the Jersey contributes 27.9 per cent. of this commodity, with a fine-grained, ripe carcass throughout. He was in good condition when bought, and about three years old.

The Holstein also did well, much on account of being lighter fleshed than the general run of his breed. Heavier flesh is this breed of cattle means coarser quality of lean; light flesh means fat flesh. From the Holstein carcass we get 27.6 per cent. of loin and rib, which is also creditable. I think that this Holstein steer was several months younger than the Jersey.

In the display of carcasses we have two representatives of common beef cattle, designated as the red scrub and the spotted scrub.

The red scrub, which always looked a little better from a feeder's standpoint, I find in the statistics made the largest gross gain in weight of the six steers. One explanation of this is his age, which must have been close to four years when put on feed. A comparatively mature steer, weighing 1050 to 1100 pounds, has but little fat to make, and will gain faster than a young steer that has everything to make. The red scrub yields 25.6 per cent. of high-priced cuts, although he shows the largest gain.

The spotted scrub with a trace of Shorthorn blood gives 27.3 per cent. of high-priced cuts. The Shorthorn grade shows the largest proportion of high-priced cuts, 28.1 per cent., and the Angus 27.5 per cent. He was the youngest of the six steers, which will account for some of his shortcomings. The rib roasts of these two steers were contrasted. The Shorthorn has an admixture of fat with ample spine fat covering. Some buyers would consider it a little wasteful. The Angus was not fat enough for the best mar-

kets, but was the very thing for those who think the Shorthorn cuts are wasteful. The Shorthorn was probably eight months older than the Angus, and therefore ripper.

Neither the Jersey nor Holstein show much flesh above the shoulder blade. The Holstein is the poorer covered of the two. The color of the lean meat is better in the Holstein, but the Jersey has the most back or basting fat. The fullness of flesh throughout the back is remarkable for dairy-bred cattle. The red scrub has better beef than the other, in the color of the lean, the uniformity and amount of back fat, and the covering or basting fat are more ample than in the spotted scrub, and indicate tender beef. When lean meat is of a dark red shade it is not as tender as when paler, and beef is better when the fat is nearer white, instead of a yellow cast. The Angus steer should have had all meal or cottonseed meal added to his rations, or a longer time in fattening.

World's Coal Consumption.

The coal production and consumption of the world, and especially of the United States in comparison with other coal-producing countries, is the subject of a monograph to appear in the forthcoming issue of the Treasury Statistical Bureau's "Summary of Commerce and Finance." The general demand for coal seems to have increased rapidly in recent years, not alone in the United States, but throughout the world. One of the characteristic features of modern industry development has been the rise of the coal industry. Modern society depends on coal as the fuel and source of power, and the terms "iron age," "machine age" and "age of steam" may all be translated the "age of coal."

The rapidly with which the production of coal has increased may be appreciated when the present volume of that production is considered, and when we reflect in how recent a time the production formed only a small fraction of that quantity. In 1901 the total coal production of the world was 892,165,000 short tons. Until as late as 1882 the world's production had never been half so great, being only 450,000,000 metric tons in that year, and not until 1872 had the world's production been as much as a third as large as it is at present. By 1894 the world's production was only 174,000,000 metric tons, or less than twenty-three per cent. of the production of 1901.

The statistics of the world's production for still earlier periods cannot be determined with any pretense of accuracy, but, on the basis of the British statistics from 1854 and of estimates for earlier periods, and from such statistics as are obtainable from France, Germany, Belgium and Austria-Hungary, an approximation may be made of the actual production. In 1860 the world's production of coal was about 144,000,000 metric tons, or less than one-fifth of the production of 1901, and considerably less than the production of either the United States or the United Kingdom at present. Ten years earlier the world's production amounted to only about eighty-three million metric tons, about one-tenth of the present world's production, and considerably less than the present output of the single State of Pennsylvania. In 1840 the production was much smaller still, amounting to little over forty-five million metric tons, or about one-seventeenth of the present output, while during the three-quarters of a century since 1820, when the output was about seventeen million tons, the production has increased about 4500 per cent.

While the figures of the world's production prior to 1840 are necessarily defective, owing to the absence of accurate statistics for the English and American industry, they sufficiently indicate the immense development of the industry during the last century. The significance of this development cannot be overlooked.

The production of coal is chiefly in the hands of the three nations, the British, the American and the German. During the last thirty years, and even earlier, the combined coal output of the United States, the United Kingdom and Germany has averaged year for year, about five-sixths of the coal output of the world. Possessing only a tenth of the world's population, they have produced about eighty-three per cent. of the mineral fuel, while the remaining ninety per cent. of the world's inhabitants have produced only about seventeen per cent. of the coal, and even if the savage and semi-barbarous nations be disregarded, the immense preponderance of coal production in these countries must be conceded. To this group might be added Belgium, which produces and consumes more coal per capita than any other European country except the United Kingdom, but for the fact of its small population placing it in the second rank of coal-producing countries.

While the continued output of these three countries has kept pace with the production of the rest of the world, their relative position has been materially altered. In 1868 the United Kingdom produced over three times as much as either the United States or Germany, the output of these countries being approximately fifty-two, 145 and 165 per cent. of the world's production, respectively. In 1870 the proportion was about the same, although the United States had gained upon Germany as a coal producer. By 1875 the output of the United Kingdom was still considerably greater than the combined production of the United States and Germany, the output of these three countries being forty-five, twenty and eighteen per cent. of the world's production, respectively. The next half-decade period witnessed a remarkable increase

in the American production, and a corresponding relative decrease in that of Great Britain, the proportions of these countries being thirty-six, twenty-eight and seventeen per cent., respectively. This increase was maintained during the latter part of the past century, and in 1886 the output of Great Britain and Ireland was only thirty-four per cent., that of the United States already thirty per cent., and that of Germany 19.2 per cent. of the coal production of the world.

In 1890, for the first time, the coal production of the United States exceeded in quantity that of Great Britain. This superiority has been maintained for two successive years. During 1901 the United States production was greater than the amount of coal produced in Great Britain and all her colonies. During that year the shares of the leading coal-producing countries were as follows: United States, thirty-four per cent.; United Kingdom, twenty-eight per cent.; and Germany, 19.2 per cent. Nor is there any prospect that the leading position of the United States may be lost in favor of another country within any calculable future time.

Notes from Washington, D. C.

Mountain water makes the plains smile. The train thunders down the canyon of the Arkansas in the Colorado Rockies, skirting along the edge of the angry stream of muddy, swift-flowing water. The Royal Gorge, not far from where the river debouches onto the plain, is one of the wonders of nature. The sides are precipitate, hundreds of feet straight up of gray and reddish rock, with not a foothold for even mountain goats. The sun strikes the yellow water of the river only at midday; it is no more than a good lead across it, and during countless centuries of turbulent flow the stream has cut for itself a crack through the mountain. Yet despite the sheer cliffs and the rainless climate, wherever a crevice or a tiny ledge allows the lodgment of particles of disintegrated and decomposing rock, there the plants of the arid region find a foothold—stiff grasses, prickly woody forms and tiny stunted evergreens. How different the scene just beyond the mouth of the canyon out on the plain. The Arkansas still winds his muddy course, but in less flow, for much of his water is diverted to nourish fields of fodder and orchards, and cantaloupes and beets and yellow pumpkins even. The apple trees this year are laden to the breaking point, as I believe they are every year under irrigation, fat cattle feed on green alfalfa or fields show covered with cocks of the hay cured a bright light green. This is the third out this year—a total crop of probably five tons to the acre.

It is a curious thing how the streams of arid lands are always muddy, while those of a humid region are normally clear. The source of the arid and the humid is on the mountains. The melting snows or the mountain rains rush along over the dry slopes of rocks and loose dirt, and sweep it down into the bed of the stream silt or sediment, worth to the irrigator a large annual fertilizer bill. But will not this stock of rich washoff give out some day, and thus compel the irrigator to fertilize? No. The source is inexhaustible, so long as the forces of nature continue their work. The great, rich alluvial bottom lands are but the washing down of mountains, bit by bit, and this will go on as long as the mountains last, and we have freezing and thawing and sunshine. For ages the Nile has brought down silt from the Abyssinian Mountains and fertilizes her broad cultivatable plains, and the land is as rich as ever. The Colorado river has cut out billions of tons of the mountains and spread them away over its lower flood areas—land wonderfully rich.

Where they can in the West stock farmers turn their stock out to range during part of the year. Some of the great herds are brought through exclusively on the range, but the practice is growing of supplementing this with alfalfa and other feed. But an Eastern farmer would think he was killing cattle to turn them out on the dry range and expect them to shift for themselves. The range is pretty poor looking and no mistake, but, like many other things in the West, its appearance is deceptive. The grass is short and close and makes picking, but it is sweet and nutritious, and as there is no rain to amount to anything, it cures itself as grass does not in the East.

But the public range is becoming badly overworked; fights are continual between sheep and cattlemen, the grasses are allowed no opportunity to recuperate, and their meat-producing power is becoming less and less. Some wise system of leasing which will not interfere with settlement will have to be worked out which will enable a man to improve his share of the range. When this is done, vast additional flocks and herds can be raised and fattened to supply the Eastern markets.

I heard a story last week on the size to which the sugar beets of the arid region attain. The Rocky Ford farmers have raised beets weighing seven or eight pounds each and running seventeen per cent. sugar, which is remarkably fine, and some of the Utah beets weigh ten pounds each; but in a California town they found two policemen asleep on one beet at the same time.

A coal-field on the Black sea, 140 miles from Constantinople, is being worked vigorously, but the poor quality of the coal mined will prevent its coming into competition with the American article.

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LADIES' KNITTED JACKET.
This jacket is most easily made, and is useful in wear. It is not shaped at all, and consists simply of three strips of ribbed knitting, which, being sewn properly together, will draw on to any figure in a most perfect fit. Procure two ounces of cardinal double Germantown yarn, a pair of No. 7 bone knitting needles, a No. 8 crochet needle, and three black bone buttons.

For first strip, cast one stitch.
1st row—Slip 1, 2 plain (*), purl 3, 2 plain, repeat from (*) to the end.
2d row—Slip 1, purl 2 (*), 3 plain, purl 3 and repeat from (*) to the end. Continue in this ribbing until 160 rows are done and bind off loosely.

This strip forms one side of the jacket; it goes up the front, over the shoulder and down the back. Knit another similar strip. Now knit a smaller strip for centre of the back. Cast on 21 stitches, and work in the same ribbing for 60 rows, and bind off loosely. The side with the 3 plain stitches up each margin is to be considered the right side of the knitting.

To sew up the jacket—the cast-off end of the back comes against the waist—lay the back on the table before you, and place the bound-off ends of the long strip level with the bound-off end of the back, and one on each side thereof, and sew together row by row as far as the back extends upwards—which will be not quite to the middle of the long strips—and be careful to sew without making a line of holes. Then fold the fronts double, so that the cast edge comes to the waist in front level with the cast-off edge at the back, and sew up a seam to go under the arm, leaving a space at the top for the armholes.

Work a crochet edge up the fronts and around the neck of the jacket.
1st row—Beginning on the right have edge by the bottom of the front, work treble in each stitch of the knitting till you get to the bottom of the other front, but miss a stitch or two in working along the top of the back to contract it to fit neck.

2d row—Treble stitch over treble stitch of last row.
3d row—Finish with shells.
Run ribbon at neck. E. V. M. NILES.

Use of Kerosene.

Here are some very useful and novel ways in which common kerosene oil may be made to serve the housekeeper who finds her battle with dirt a losing struggle:

A white flannel cloth or a piece of white knit underwear dampened with kerosene will clean any porcelain or metal bathtub. Dry the tub first and then rub tightly with the kerosene cloth. Every vestige of foreign matter will disappear, and in an instant's time the bathtub will be as white as the task. A porcelain tub can be kept fresh as new by this treatment.

Kerosene will cut the accumulated grease from the drain pipe of a sink, and will keep the sink itself perfectly sweet and clean. Kerosene cuts all grease and fats generally; axle grease disappears before it, and tar softens and fades away. It is so volatile that, if put in dry heat, it will quickly evaporate and leave no stain on the fabric upon which it has been used.

As a bleacher, kerosene stands high. Put half a teaspoonful into a washbasin of water and then proceed with the washing after the usual method. The clothes will be whiter, sweeter and hygienic, and cleaner than they can be got without the use of the oil, for kerosene is a disinfectant. It kills all invertebrate life, so that many kinds of germs are utterly destroyed, and in an instant's time the clean dirt windows or mirrors, giving them a high lustre. It will make dull brasses shine, if not as well as some of the acid and brickdust pastes used, still so well that a little rub frequently given will keep them in good condition, and one's hands do not suffer by the process as they do if the acids are used. After polishing brass it will be rubbed over with sweet oil and wiped dry.

In the winter, insect life kerosene is a sure weapon of defence. If the kitchen table is seized upon by roaches and used as a nest for their eggs, do not burn it up after ineffective scrubbing and scaldings. Put it in the yard and soak it with kerosene. Not an egg will live. In like manner treat any insect-infested furniture.

An old and easy way to get rid of ants is to put cucumber peel around those places where they appear. The writer has yet to hear of the ant that does not flee the spot.

As a hair tonic kerosene is a specific. Put a little in a jelly glass, after putting out the light at night, and dip the tips of the fingers in the oil and rub into the scalp. It will keep the hair perfectly clean, white and free from dandruff, and will bring in new hair a rapid young growth.

Last and most important, kerosene figures as a household remedy. To quote the woman whose experience of kerosene the above facts have been drawn from:

"I have saved my eldest boy twice by the use of kerosene. The first time it was out on a ranch in Kansas. He had a fearful attack of membranous croup. His father was racing over the prairie for a doctor, who could not be got in time. I watched for the boy's death at every convulsive struggle for breath, when into my mind rushed a saying of my old nurse: 'We always killed the croup with kerosene.' I had a horror of her voice in my childhood, but then I blessed her, as I seized my lamp, blew out the flame and succeeded in forcing some of the oil into my child's mouth. In ten minutes the hardness of the phlegm was gone and the child saved.

"Once again I used it, and with none but good effect; and, while in all cases where I could have medical aid I should prefer to rely upon my doctor, still I feel that, armed with kerosene, am equipped to fight croup and win."—Rural World.

Washing Baby's Flannels.

The baby's underwear should be of flannel, as soft and fine as the purse can buy, and kept in the best possible condition by washing it properly. A careless landress can ruin the best woolen garments in two or three washings, making them so shrunken and rough that they irritate the tender flesh almost beyond endurance. The following method has been used for years with unvarying success, the little garments retaining their soft, fleecy look until worn out.

Use water that is as hot as you can bear your hand in comfortably, for flannel cannot be boiled and hot water cleanses and purifies it. Dissolve a little borax in it, and add enough soap to make a strong suds, wash the flannel through two waters prepared in this way, plunging them up and down and rubbing gently between the hands. Rough usage thickens the texture. Soap should never be applied directly to the flannel. Borax softens the water, making very little soap or rubbing necessary. Rinse through clear water of the same temperature as that used for washing, and press through a rubber wringer. Then just before hanging them out pull and stretch every piece in shape, for if this is neglected, the tiny wool fibres interlace causing it to become badly shrunken. Place them smoothly on the lines, the sunshine, which gentle breeze will blow through them. Every part of the work should be done as speedily as possible.—New Hampshire Farmer.

Why We Eat Salt.

While many treatises on dietetics deal with salt as if it were merely a condiment, it is universally recognized to be something more. Indeed, it is an indispensable element of the food of man and animals.

A well-known authority asserts that whenever the annual consumption of salt falls below twenty pounds per head of the population, the public health is likely to suffer. In regions of the earth where salt is a scarce article, it is regarded as a substance of great value. Salt starvation is, in its way, as distressing as thirst or hunger, although it shows itself in a different way.

"The want of salt," says the Medical Press, "does not produce a definite disease, but reduces the vitality of the body as a whole, so that the persons deprived of it fall more readily victims to prevailing epidemics, as well as endemic maladies."

We use salt because there are salts in our food in its unrefined state, as nature prepares it, before it is skinned and boned, peeled and cooked, and we must replace these salts or our bodies will not be fully benefited by what we eat.

We use salt also because our blood contains it, likewise our muscles, our nerves, and, indeed, on which all bodies, and it is used up during the life processes constantly being carried on within us.

But the salt contained in natural foods and that required for our living bodies is not common salt, but a combination of that substance with phosphates and other things, which are even more necessary and more natural than common salt itself.

Foot-Ease.

Those who suffer habitually from tired and aching feet may be glad to know that there are many ways in which this condition of things may be alleviated. Reference is not now made to the more serious troubles, such as flat foot, or to corns or bunions. It is perfectly obvious why these pests should cause pain and trouble, and whenever they occur they should at once receive professional treatment. These words are for those people who say, "There is nothing the matter with my feet; I have not a corn, and yet I am in agony if I try to use my feet much."

This condition of things may be brought about in several ways. It may be caused by a gouty condition of the system, and in such a case all wine or beer drinking should be stopped; the diet should be simple and even frugal for a time, and several doses of bicarbonate of sodium may be taken—as much as an after-dinner coffee-spoonful in water.

Sometimes aching feet mean that the weight of the body is too much for a naturally slender foot and ankle, and then a shoe should be chosen with a view to the more complete support of these members. It need not be said that rubbers should never be worn a moment longer than is necessary, and never in the house, as they check ventilation. An aching foot is often a foot simply panting for breath. For the same reason patent-leather shoes may cause much distress. House shoes should be easy and well ventilated, and it is well, if possible, to adopt the sandal for house wear.

If a foot is aching or smarting badly after much walking or standing, great relief may be obtained by plunging it for a few minutes in hot water in which has been dissolved a handful of salt. Then, with the feet still immersed, let the water be gradually cooled until it is quite cold. This treatment is also greatly helped by a little massage by the hand under the water.

Rebellious feet, especially if their owner desires to use them for much walking, are greatly benefited by the use of the rubber heel on the walking shoe, a device which relieves not only the feet, but the whole system.

Finally, one should always be careful to wipe the feet very dry after the bath, and to insure this a dusting powder will be found a useful adjunct.—Youth's Companion.

Leg-Crossing and Physiology.

Inasmuch as crossing the legs causes hollow thighs, it may be asked, what is the matter from a medical point of view? Notice some evil effects of the practice. The back of the knee, as well as the front of the elbow and wrist, the groin and the armpit, contains important nerves and vessels which are not so well protected against direct pressure as similar structures in other parts of the body. This space behind the knee, bounded above by the hamstrings, or tendons of the pectoral muscles, and below by the heads of the great calf muscles, is called the popliteal space and contains two large nerves, the external and the internal popliteal nerves, which are the divisions of the great sciatic, together with the large popliteal artery and its vein, which carry the blood to and from the leg. Besides there are numerous branches supplying the joint, and also a number of small lymphatic glands. These structures are beneath the skin, embedded in fat and connective tissue, and are not so well protected as they are by the external coat of the external can be made out just inside the external hamstring.

Now it is the pressure upon these vessels and nerves, brought about by improperly crossing the legs, that often gives rise to serious trouble. Fortunately most of us throw the crossing leg so far over the leg crossed that the thigh of the first rests well up on the other, and popliteal space is left free. But very often the legs are crossed in such a way that the knee of one fits accurately into the popliteal space of the other, thus throwing the weight of the leg upon the vessels and nerves which it contains. The leg and foot become numb or "go to sleep" as we say, and the foot is

seen to jerk up and down with a definite rhythm. This means that the nerves are compressed, and the blood is constricted. If the jerking of the foot be watched one will see that it beats in time with the pulse, which means that besides the hydrostatic pressure in the blood vessels the heart is overcoming to a certain degree the weight of the leg and the walls of the compressed artery are strained. The vein, too, is constricted and our feet feel big and swollen, and the superficial veins on the back of the leg often stand out in black lines.

Of these symptoms the most favorable is beyond a doubt. A compressed nerve, if long subjected to such conditions, is bound to rebel. Sciatica, ascending paralysis, chronic numbness and cramps have often been traced directly to the pressure caused by crossing the legs. Many men "go lame" in one leg, or "have a bad knee," and it is found that they habitually cross their legs in a definite way. Constrict an artery or a vein and the penalty is sure and often swift. Thrombosis, or a blood clot in the vessel; aneurism, or a morbid dilation of the vessel; improper venous return and varicose veins; to say nothing of swollen feet and poorly nourished muscles, are some of the graver ills.

Fortunately not all or necessarily any of these afflictions are inevitably entailed by crossing one's legs. However, if the danger signal of numbness, swelling and jerking of the foot appear, we may rest assured that if long kept up we may and probably will suffer from one or more of these troubles.—Troy Times.

Domestic Hints.

FRUIT WHIP.

Sweeten to taste and stew one pound of prunes till the pits will slip out. When cold add well beaten whites of four eggs. Beat together until light. Put in a dish that can go on to the table, and bake twenty minutes. When done, whip cream. Half this amount is enough for a family of four persons.

CHOCOLATE CARAMELS.

A quarter of a pound of chocolate, grated, one large cup of granulated sugar, one cup of milk and a heaping tablespoonful of butter, a quarter of a cup of cream, and a pinch of salt. Boil all together, stirring all the time, until the syrup hardens in cold water, and just before taking from the fire add a teaspoonful of vanilla. Beat the syrup as soon as removed from the fire, and keep it up until it is too stiff to beat any longer. It is beaten a minute and a half it will do well. Turn out of the saucepan into a greased pan and before it is quite cold cut in squares.

VANILLA WAFFERS.

One cupful of sugar, two-thirds of a cupful of butter, four tablespoons of milk, one tablespoonful of vanilla, one egg, two-thirds of a teaspoonful of soda, or its equivalent of baking powder, flour enough to roll out well. Roll very thin, and watch them well, as they burn quickly.

LIMA BEANS WITH BUTTER SAUCE.

Put the beans till quite tender, drain them and put in a bowl. Sprinkle with salt and pepper, and when the butter is quite melted serve. In place of the butter, thick cream may be used if preferred.

SPONGE CAKE.

Four cups of flour, three cups of sugar, one cup of cold water, eight eggs, two even tablespoonfuls of baking powder, the grated peel of an orange, and a pinch of salt. Beat the eggs in a bowl, stir until almost dissolved, beat the whites to a stiff froth, the yolks to a cream, put one cup of flour with the yolks into the sugar and water, beat hard, add the whites of the eggs, mix the combination in a bowl, then add the orange peel and other ingredients by degrees quickly and lightly. Bake in a shallow pan in a quick oven. When it no longer sizzles it is done. Ice with a boiled icing white hot, flavored with almond extract.

Hints to Housekeepers.

Plums, peaches, lemons and similar small fruits keep best in papers. It will repay the housekeeper to buy perishable fruits up in paper as soon as purchased.

For insomnia a glass of hot milk, or better still hot malted milk, taken just before retiring, will often have the desired effect.

After touching poison ivy wash the parts exposed in alcohol and avoid oily greasy.

Be careful in buying second-hand goods; diseases may be easily conveyed by them, and books, moreover, are very hard to fumigate.

Rock crystal, French glass and table glass of the Colonial cut, have supplanted cut glass in the affections of the housewife. The French glass is not so brilliant as the cut glass, but it is sturdier, is especially popular just now. The Colonial kind, which comes in broad berry dishes, carafes, whiskey jugs and drinking glasses, is admirably suited to dining-rooms furnished in Colonial style.

Long string beans, string thoroughly, cut in half, then in half lengthwise, throw into boiling water and let them come to a boil. Remove from the fire, drain, cover with cold water and let them stand in this until it is time to cook them, then drain again, cover with boiling water and cook for fifteen minutes, and when almost done add salt. When tender, drain, add a lump of butter, and salt and pepper to taste.

A pretty white shirt waist is made of the new striped waisting, with the collars and cuffs piped with black crepe de chine and black lace gowings with white taffeta silk finish the collar.

An exquisite fan, with ivory sticks, is of white chiffon, trimmed with real lace.

No wardrobe of maid or matron is complete without at least one gown of some of the attractive black silk fabrics. They are made up in combinations of black and white, and are very elegant, as well as smart. Brilliant black taffetas, black satin duchesse, pearl de sole and soft semitrous lousines are popular and divide favor with black crepe de chine and black lace gowings.

To make a plain lemon sherbet, a half dozen lemons, one pound of sugar, one quart of water and a heaping tablespoonful of gelatine will be needed. Dissolve the gelatine by first soaking it in a part of the cold water and then stirring it into a cupful of the water, scalded. Add the sugar, the juice of the lemons, the rest of the water and freeze.

A fever patient can be made cool and comfortable by being frequently sponged with water in which a little soda has been dissolved.

Brass work can be kept beautifully bright by occasionally rubbing with salt and vinegar.

When you serve a baked-bean salad accompany it with olive or anchovy sandwiches.

One of the new ideas in serving game and poultry as introduced by Philadelphia chefs, will be to make a sauce of the game, and serve it with a flavor of ham improves meats. I mean the new way in which portions of chicken, squabs, reed birds and various kinds of game are dressed upon a round slice of honey-cured ham. The ham is cut in half lengthwise, and under it is a slice of delicately browned toast covered with a tender lettuce leaf. It makes a pretty dish and an appetizing one.—Good Housekeeping.

A pretty waist from a Paris designer is made of silk in cream and old rose stripes; the wide rose stripes being tucked and then pressed into box plaits. A blouse-vest of embroidered chiffon, a cape collar of Bruges lace and tiny gold buttons set at intervals on two narrow-shoulder straps that outline the front, collar and sleeve cuffs, are the accessories that finish the waist.

Fashion Notes.

Embroidered white linen collars, with the new chancelier tabs in front, and mounted on slightly curved bands, are again worn with day costumes by those whose complexion will permit the use of this heavy opaque white. They are worn with a quaint brooch in old-time fashion, and the tabbed cuffs to match turn back on the wrists of the closely fitted dress sleeves.

To wear with afternoon and evening toilets, silks, cashmeres, etc., there are fuchsia and cape collars of white mouseline de sole overlaid everywhere with applique lace in a flat design. Some of the prettiest of these accessories are in drop-yoke shape, fastened at the back, the yoke and standing collar having an all-over vine-like pattern of lace applique, while the extreme edges of both are finished with a medallion band of cluny, Venise guipure or other lace. This adjustable drop yoke reaches low on the shoulders, rounding not quite so low on the front and back of the bodice. Similar collars of black silk muslin are trimmed in the same way with white applique, for those who object to all white, and there are also styles in butter color, felle, and black and white all-overs.

White velvet rolled hats with black and white ermine tails coiled here and there among the velvet draperies are of the latest. The velvet fancies in millinery. The hats are finished with a torsade of black velvet which crosses the crown, traverses the extreme edge of the brim and ends in a large soft crumpled rosette at the left side.

The darker velvet toques are newer in shape than most of the season's headwear. Nothing could be more becoming with an afternoon costume than one of these styles, neither suggested in shape nor used so successfully. An attractive French model in black Lyons velvet has a full knot of the velvet just in front, and draped sides softened by shaded velvet autumn leaves coming against the hair toward the back. A golden brooch, and a toque similarly made, has red, green and russet velvet foliage intermingled with the silky folds of the velvet on each side of the hat.

New fall and winter models of Norfolk coats are brought out this season, which consist of very independent garments or to match the costume. They are made of English frieze, Sutherland tweed, Scotch cheviot, cravenette-faced cloth and the light-weight Venetians. These coats are of the latest style. The silk-stitched Norfolk plaids are applied after the garment is put together. A curved belt of medium width is passed beneath these plaids. The fronts turn back with revers that form notches with the ends of the collar, and the plaids and revers are simply finished with a stitched strap cuff.

Velvet is a very fashionable material for trained evening dresses with bodices that are out rounding or deeply pointed in the neck. Odd and interesting colors are sought for in evening velvet, among the most popular being mottled brown, moss green, and mauve that has pink and opalescent tints by electric light. Ivory white panne or Oriental satins and laces are used for the winter season for 1902. Some of the new features in this class of goods are Persian panne and Tartan velvets, fancy striped and flowered effects, and other designs in epingle or velvet. Some of the pretty retted velvet in shadow effects, and shiffon velvets and a new weave called Mercilleux are among the latest importations. The beautiful floral designs in fancy panne are reproduced in somewhat less expensive weaves for decorating dress hats, the added value of the soft-finished velvet consisting in its adaptability for bows, draperies and plisse work without creasing.

Very fine felt hats made in Paris have the finish of the softest kid or velvet on their surface, and other models from Vienna are of lustrous felt, that has almost the gloss of mirror satin. The crown in both the extreme and conservative shapes, with a low crown and medium brim. Flat or round plaques, to be fashioned into various novel shapes, come in felt, plain velvet and panne. When of velvet, the crown of the hat is decorated with a large handsome design in lace. Long, sweeping ostrich plumes in monochrome, or in very beautiful color combinations, trim the handsomest of the French picture hats. Some of the long, full, and flowing styles in velvet are of jet black, violet, sea-green or pink. Again, there are feathers of purple, shading down to pansy, violet and palest mauve or a single quill. Another effect is that of using two contrasting shades in the feathers which trim a single hat. Gray and blue, for example, orange and brown, cream and opal gray, etc. Fur, lace, cabochons, gold braid and expensive jeweled buckles are used with these trimmings, which are still placed low and close to the head. The velvet flower is large enough to take the place of the crown so long as favor, and they are used in the same way that those were, under the brim next to the hair in front, or at the back.

The best dressmakers still recommend the plain de sole and plain de cygne silks to those who do not like the solid rather garish lustre of satin. Plain de sole of the finest quality has rich highlights on its surface, and the underweave is visible, making it more durable than satin, and many kinds of silks. These fabrics appear this season in many tints—in one color, in new chameleon effects, in small flowered designs, and also in pretty patterns for accessories and fancy work.

Ladies' cloth, very light in weight and of soft, velvet-like surface, in ivory or cream white, is used for vests, cuffs, collars, girdles, strappings and the new drop yokes for Monte Carlo and other coats and tailor costumes of broad cloth or zibeline. When a lighter material is preferred for the drop yoke, plain satin with Irish lace and gold girdle buttons on the strappings are often used. Also broad, velvet-lined Irish lace, mated with silk and all-over embroidered in various Flemish designs. Some of the drop yokes are merely finished with soutache or silk-rib stitching; others again are overlaid with an entire new design of velvet, and some are of open-work silk applique, passementerie or braid. The drop yoke is in the extensive display now on view at all the importing houses of textiles manufactured expressly for tailor costumes, many novel weaves are shown in fine soft Oxford satins, plain and plaid zibelines with silky lustre and downy drapings, and in velvet-lined Irish lace, mated with silk and all-over embroidered in various Flemish designs. Some of the drop yokes are merely finished with soutache or silk-rib stitching; others again are overlaid with an entire new design of velvet, and some are of open-work silk applique, passementerie or braid.

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Strappings of lines of broad silk terminate on many new costumes in tiny buckles or fancy buttons, and smart Louis XIV. vests fasten with the latter trimming. The really necessary button is small, but the one for ornament only is considerably larger. In these, as in girdles, clasps and buckles, gold, silver and jeweled designs outnumber all others.

Some of the French and English costumes show a low-cut, open-fronted Eton blouse bodice, with girdles of Persian brocade. There are also patterned jackets that are put on over a vest in bolero form, but a bolero with long peplum ends falling over the dress skirt. These are also put on some of the cloth dresses made in euphuism. Again on the half-fitting coat front, there are flat caps or bolero ends of the cloth, lapping each other, of graduated length, and reaching from the neck to half the length of the dress skirt. Venetian and French broadcloth costumes trimmed with silk cord appliques and narrow fur bands, and the Parisian modes as parts of early-winter trousseaux for going-away gowns and for visiting and church wear. Russian velvet, costume cloth, camel's hair and zibeline are also popular materials, and fur strappings, graduated girdles and costly appliques are the current decoration.

Dressmakers are using soft velvets for the vests, revers, collars, cuffs and girdles of their

afternoon gowns. These expensive additions give a much better appearance to a simple woolen toilette than it would otherwise present. There are patterned velvets designed for the same purpose, also ribbed iridescent weaves, the grounds sprinkled with polka-dots, cubes, lance figures, etc., in white, or else a darker color than the foundation. Repped stuffs in silk and wool, velours, corduroys or other corded fabrics, whether in self colors or shot, had fair to be in great vogue all winter.

Rough-haired and rough-surfaced dress fabrics have been laid in by all dry goods merchants, zibeline taking a prominent place. The newest weaves of this material are silkier and have much longer hairs than the zibelines of last year. The demand for them increases, but many women prefer faced cloths. Though possibly less effective in a way, than zibeline, they are more durable. Faced cloth trimmed with stitching, braiding, strappings or appliques of white cloth makes a very stylish costume for autumn or winter wear. Braiding done by hand or on applique always looks well on cloth. It is stylish in appearance and durable as well. What is termed "frogging" adds materially to the fronts of outdoor coats, jackets, and the like, and this season there is a demand for pendulous, crocheted cords, tas-els, etc., in various designs.

Rose-colored de sole or satin waists will be worn in the evening this season with skirts of black velvet, silk or satin. Occasionally they will be seen with skirts of dark green velvet or of lustrous repped silk. Sometimes these waists will be tucked and trimmed with applique lace, and again the trimming will be of velvet matching the skirt in color, with the addition of very narrow dark fur and jeweled buttons.—New York Evening Post.

The World Beautiful.

Lillian Whiting in Boston Budget.

Matthew Arnold dwells often upon "our need for conduct, our need for beauty"; and he finds the springs of the supply to be, not in the "strenuous" life, always at high pressure and extreme tension, but in the thoughtful leisure, in the serenity of repose, in the devotion to poetry and art. "How," he questions, "are poetry and eloquence to exercise the power of relating the modern results of natural science to man's instinct for conduct, his instinct for beauty? And here again I answer that I do not know how they will exercise it, but that they can and will exercise it I am sure. I do not mean that modern philosophical poets and modern philosophical moralists are to come and relate for us, in express terms, the results of modern scientific research to our instinct for conduct, our instinct for beauty. I mean that we shall find, as a matter of experience, if we know the best that has been thought and uttered in the world, we shall find that the art and poetry and eloquence of men who lived, perhaps, long ago, who had the most limited natural knowledge, who had the most erroneous conceptions about many important matters, will show that this art, and poetry, and eloquence, have, in fact, not only the power of refreshing and delighting us, they have also the power, such as the strength and worth, in essentials, of their author's criticism of life,—they have a fortifying, and elevating, and quickening, and suggestive power, capable of wonderfully helping us to relate the results of modern science to our need for conduct, our need for beauty."

Life has a tendency to become far too "strenuous" the best one can do, even, and the need is not for greater pressure of intensity, but for greater leisure for intellectual and spiritual refreshment; for a calmer trust and a loftier faith.

The joy of faith in its inspiration and emotion is wonderfully renewed from the Divine Word. "The Lord shall be unto thee an everlasting light, and thy God thy glory." It is full of these positive and radiant assurances that invest faith with the most absolute joy of confidence and positiveness of trust. These assurances meet the eye and enter the heart with the certainty of a personal message, directly given from God. And it is in this realm of the higher thought, of that culture of the soul which is the true object and aim of the temporary life on earth, that the relief from the too strenuous pressure of affairs must be found. The human soul is so constituted that it cannot live unless it breathes its native air of inspiration and joy and divineness. It is stifled in the "strenuous" lower life; its energies are paralyzed unless it seek renewal at the divine springs. It is this strenuousness of latter-day life, unrelieved by love and by prayer; unrelieved by the spiritual luxury of loving service and outgoing thought; this strenuous attitude, intent on getting and greed and gain and personal advantage, that, at last, ends in the disorders and the crimes, the despair and the suicides whose records fill the daily press. The cure for all these ills is to be found only in the higher life of conduct and of beauty.

"Thou shalt show me the way of life: Thou shalt make me full of joy with Thy countenance." Here, and here alone, is the cure, the relief, the leading into peace and serenity and exaltation. It is not that the "strenuous" life is in wrong and unmeaning directions. Let the soul find its true refreshment and infinitely sustaining tide of energy in God, and immediately "old things have passed away," and "all have become new," and life is full of exhilaration and joy. "Every day we ought to renew our purpose, saying to ourselves: This day let us make a sound beginning, for what we have hitherto done is naught." Every day is a new and definite re-entrance upon life. Nor is it worth while to linger too much on the mistakes, the errors and mistakes of the past. The consequences of errors and mistakes linger in life until they are worked out; but the working out after all, only a question of time and of unfaltering persistence in the upward way, and thus a new foundation of life is laid: "old things have passed away and all things have become new." It is in the serene and joyous exaltation of life alone that one truly lives; in that sweetness of mutual trust and generous aims and ever-flowing love that radiates its joy and beauty with whom it comes in contact, and which is perpetually fed and perpetually renewed by the constant communion of the soul with God.

The Brunswick, Boston.

If we accept Mr. Davitt's analysis of the Indian famines, we shall have to consider that the United States is directly responsible for the present failure of the Philippine rice crop.

Our Lady Readers will Recognize This Picture.



A Fac-Simile of the One Printed on the Wrappers of Dobbins' Electric Soap

The soap their mothers used to delight in praising. Dobbins' Electric is the same pure article it was when it was first made and used up to a century ago. If your children do not like to wash their faces with soap, tell them it is because your landress is using some of the cheap trash loaded with rising and irritating materials, that is sold as soap. Dobbins' Electric is pure, smooth, and as molten as alabaster. It whitens the clothes, and preserves them, and is sold by all grocers.

DOBBINS' SOAP MANUFACTURING CO., Sole Manufacturers, Philadelphia.

Notes and Queries.

THE NATURE OF THE SOLAR PROMINENCES.

J. W. R. M. Jullien has lately offered a new explanation of the nature of the solar prominences to be seen in the spectroscopic. He also does the idea that layers of different material exist in the solar envelope and supposes that its gases the different elements are afloat in the space between the layers. He supposes that the high specific density will augment with the depth at which it is found in the solar atmosphere, but exists, he says, throughout the atmosphere. The solar prominences, he says, are afloat in the space between two tornados—whirlpools—near, and all the phenomena observed in the spectroscopic are entirely explicable on the theory just outlined, from which it is concluded that a chromosphere composed of layers of different substances does not exist and that it really is nothing but a series of waves and whirlpools rendered visible by the abnormal dispersion of the light coming from different depths within the solar envelopes.

IMPORTANT EVENTS IN THE LIFE OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

Born in New York Oct. 27, 1858.
18—Entered Harvard.
22—Graduated from Harvard.
23—Studied law with his uncle, Theodore Roosevelt.
25—Elected to New York assembly.
26—Leader of New York delegation to Chicago convention.
27—Started his Western ranch.
28—Treated for New York mayoralty.
30—United States civil service commissioner.
31—Under President Harrison.
37—Police commissioner of New York City.
39—Assistant Secretary of the United States Navy.
40—Accepted command of Rough Riders.
40—Resigned Navy Department position.
40—In San Juan fight.
40—Promoted to be colonel.
40—Nominated for Governor of New York.
40—Elected Governor of New York.
40—Nominated for Vice-President June 2, 1897.
43—Became President of the United States.
43—States as result of President McKinley's death.
Sept. 14, 1901.
1. George Washington.
2. John Adams.
3. Thomas Jefferson.
4. James Madison.
5. James Monroe.
6. John Quincy Adams.
7. Andrew Jackson.
8. Martin Van Buren.
9. William Henry Harrison.
10. John Tyler.
11. James Knox Polk.
12. Zachary Taylor.
13. Millard Fillmore.
14. Franklin Pierce.
15. James Buchanan.
16. Abraham Lincoln.
17. Andrew Johnson.
18. Ulysses S. Grant.
19. Rutherford B. Hayes.
20. James Abram Garfield.
21. Chester Alan Arthur.
22. Grover Cleveland.
23. Benjamin Harrison.
24. Grover Cleveland.
25. William McKinley.
26. Theodore Roosevelt.

The Horse.

Grass Culture.

Recently Mr. George M. Clark of Higganum, Ct., delivered a lecture on "Grass Culture" at North Loomis, Mass., at a meeting of the Pomona Grange at this place. We give herewith the substance of his lecture.

Hay is annually worth millions more than corn, cotton, wheat, oats and rye combined. Fifty years ago it was worth \$2,000,000, now nearly ten times as much. Science or something else must soon step in to keep up the supply. I have had a circular printed to aid the work, and in two years have personally answered more than twenty thousand letters concerning grass culture, and have sent with each letter one or more of these little circulars of mine. I am always glad to send to any one interested a free copy of my circular on increasing the grass crop, the applicant enclosing me a two-cent stamp for postage.

You cannot rush through my suggestions in this little pamphlet, then pass on please, and expect good results. It has taken fifteen years of experimental work to make the book, and the most of you will have to read and study it before you will get the facts planted in your brains. The old saying is, "Anything that is worth doing at all is worth doing well," and if that refers to grass culture, it is absolutely true.

There is a large amount of talk about worn-out lands, and half the letters which I receive speak of this subject. Now, I wish emphatically to say there is no such thing as worn-out lands; they are simply dormant.

Intense cultivation is the principal thing in renewing and giving new life to the soil. It must be worked, entirely worked, twenty times at least more than now. The old sod should be made into plant food right away. The surface of the land should be kept true, and worked to an even depth of at least six inches. The land should be worked as many as thirty times in July and August, and seeded Sept. 1, in this latitude.

My experience indicates that timothy and redtop must be sown, completed and finished at the same date. In other words, a field sown in part Monday and again in part Saturday of the same week, will never produce any grass from the seed sown Saturday, for the reason that seed sown Monday will take possession of the field. I use fourteen quarts of timothy and fourteen quarts of reseeded redtop to each acre, and put it on as described in my circular.

It is important that the fertilizer should be well mixed. I use bone, muriate of potash and nitrate of soda. These fertilizers, as a whole, cost not more than \$3 per ton of hay produced.

Perhaps Page 12 in my little pamphlet is the most important page in the book in showing results. My entire crop, from sixteen acres, in one year, from the two cuttings, was 208,479 pounds, which, when figured at \$18 per ton, gave an average profit of \$31.61 per acre, while at \$8.50 per ton the net cash profits were \$20 per acre. All the details suggested by me must be substantially carried out, otherwise will not succeed.

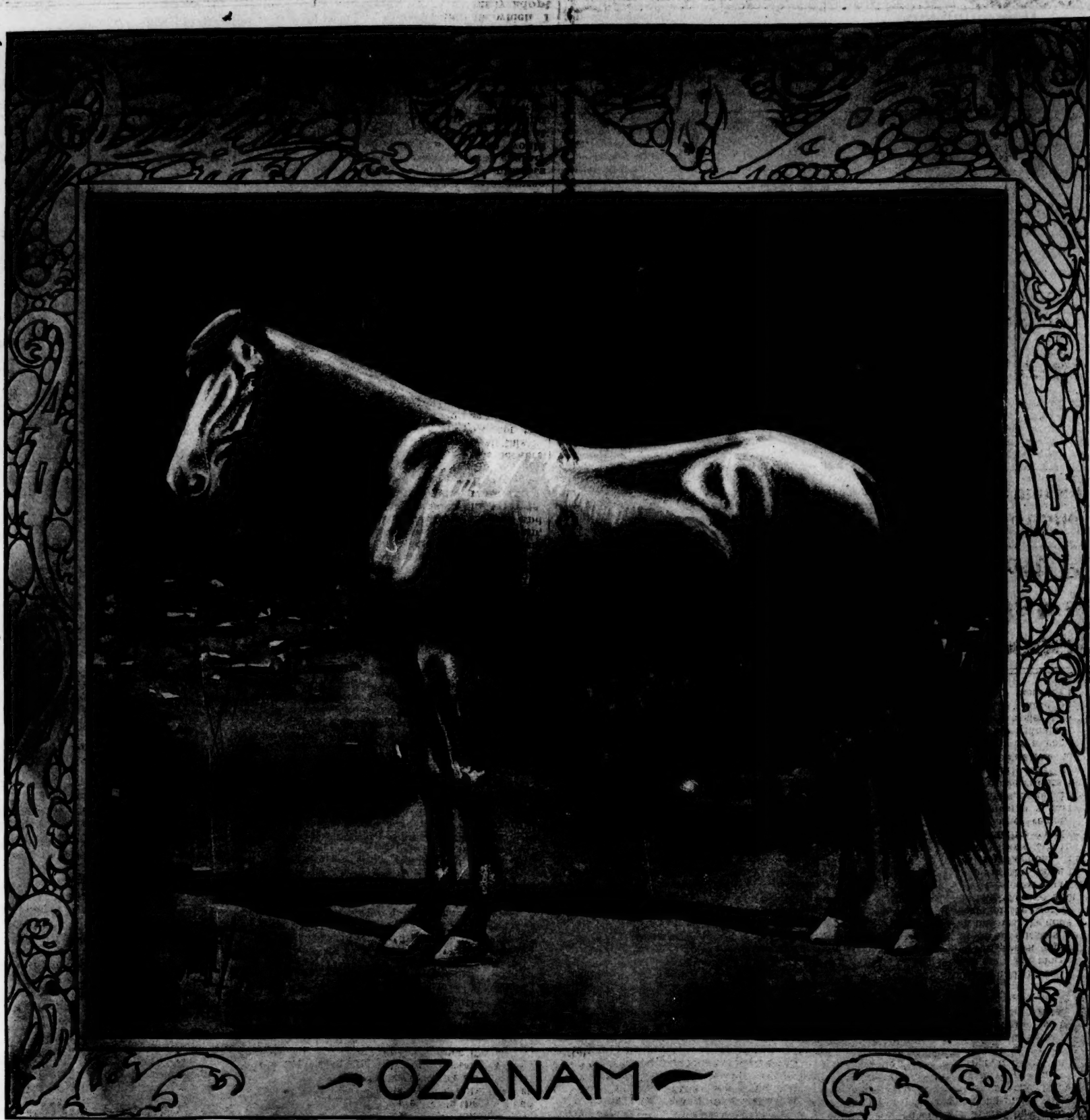
How often should the land be reseeded? I should say once in five or six years. It takes ten months to produce a crop, and forty days from the time it starts in the spring. With this cultivation a drought will not do much harm. The winter storms always give water in the spring, and intense cultivation, with perfect connection with the subsoil, give an early start, and from three to five inches more water will make the first crop. The old field cannot do it. This new method will always make a large first crop.

Timothy and redtop should be cut as soon as half the heads show full blossom. Two to three days of good sunshine will cure heavy grass, but with poor weather time only tells. I always heap my hay when hot, say from 2 to 4 o'clock P. M. I always cut my second crop just before frost. I never pasture my grass fields. I do not think it pays to fertilize old fields. Keep your grass fields clean and fertilize every crop. While the average farmer may not be able to carry out my full scheme, yet he can more intensively cultivate, seed and fertilize, and give the grass the first chance, thus doubling his present product. These points are all outlined in Mr. Clark's circular, which is free to any one who sends a two-cent stamp to George M. Clark, Higganum, Ct., to pay the postage.

Intense cultivation is the watchword. Without it you cannot succeed. That fact is, perhaps, more fully shown in Mr. Clark's plum orchard of four years. Double cut with a double action cutaway harrow six times per month, eighteen times in April, May, June and July each year, without any fertilizer whatever, showing an average growth of more than four feet each year. This produced the third year five hundred baskets and the fourth year one thousand large baskets of very large plums from 1425 trees.

Think of it, the growth has been more than sixteen feet in the four years. The total average growth this year to each tree is over three hundred feet. No fish in this. Intense cultivation has done it. This is no makeshift talk; the trees are there and any one can go and see them. I would like to have everybody see them. The same effect would be produced on peaches or any other fruit.

However, the subject under discussion here is grass culture. My first crop this year from 142 acres was sixty-four tons, 874 pounds. The second crop, from 114 acres,



was 35,920 pounds, making a total of seventy-five tons of dry hay, and from 114 acres over 60 tons to the acre. The field of seven-eighths of an acre, not underdrained, seeded thirteen years, cut in twenty-six crops, a total of 104 tons, or over eight tons per year. This is a flat section, composed of clay, gravel and hard pan, with no vegetable matter on it. I have used no fertilizer on it for fifteen years, except bone, potash and nitrate of soda.

The five-eighths of an acre adjoining is nearly flat. Has a little vegetable matter on top, not underdrained, reseeded every six years. This cut the current year, in two crops, 13,375 pounds, or at the rate of 21,400 pounds, or over ten tons to the acre. The total cost of cutting and making the two crops this year was less than \$2 per ton, fertilizer \$3 per ton, total cost of hay in the barn \$5. This year is no exception.

As to general forage crops, ensilage, corn, cow peas, crimson clover and other clovers, orchard grass and all kinds of grain, I have to the work, but there are others who know more than I do. One thing I know for certain, that the best results cannot be obtained without intensive cultivation. I experimented with a neighbor's corn field for a number of years, changing each year, and the result was nearly double the crop, and even more in dry years. Sunshine and air work wonders. I would like to have any one come and see my work, and shall also be pleased to answer any questions which they may ask.

Life Insurance Savings.

BY JAMES W. ALEXANDER.

More potent even than the great commercial and industrial enterprises so intelligently and energetically carried out by Americans, the savings of the people give to America its pre-eminence in the world of finance. The general education of the masses, coupled with the almost universal moral and religious training, has developed a common sentiment of prudence, thrift and rational economy, resulting in a large amount of cash savings belonging to the people at large in America than in all the rest of the world together. These savings are aggregated into two great divisions—the funds deposited in savings banks and those invested in life insurance. In some countries, notably in France, the people conserve their savings, to a large degree, in actual coin, kept in hiding, or in their private strong boxes, or in small investments in the public funds. In the United States probably ninety per cent. of the total savings of the people are either invested in securing life insurance or deposited in savings banks. The aggregated billions of money thus saved are represented by bonds—Government, State, municipal, railway and other great corporations—or in loans based on realty, enabling the erection of magnificent business structures, impossible ordinarily through individual investment, of which no other country has such remarkable examples as the United States.

The intelligent, broad-minded methods pursued by the life insurance associations of America have demonstrated that, aside from the insurance against sudden or premature death, more substantial results are obtained for savings by investment in life insurance than through interest allowed on savings bank deposits. The total fund invested in life insurance in the United States exceeds the aggregate of all the rest of the world—three companies incorporated in the State of New York have assets beyond a billion of dollars and equaling the entire national debt of the United States. The life insurance companies of America do more business in other countries than the local or native companies.

As an incident following this tone in the directing of life insurance affairs, the effort of each established and prosperous association has been to bring itself to the standard of what James W. Alexander, in addressing the Convention of State Insurance Superintendents recently, called "the ideal company." So great is the experience of Mr. Alexander, and so thoroughly and from so high a plane has he studied the subject, that it is worth while quoting some passages from this address.

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And, before attempting this description, let me say that in my judgment there is no business in the world, commercial, financial or benevolent, which at all approaches that of life insurance in its skillful conduct and the maintenance in practice of sound principles. And this may be ascribed in some measure to the publicity given to all details of management. If the same publicity were given to the details of management of other forms of corporation, there would be far less opportunity to find fault. When it is remembered that the administration of one of our large life insurance companies is dissected, and the detailed results publicly proclaimed by some fifty State Insurance Departments, each watching to expose any irregularity, and by the official supervisors of every foreign government within whose domains the company is permitted to transact business, including in some instances Great Britain, Canada, Australia, France, Germany, Russia, Spain, Italy, the South American States, Mexico and others; each having its own searching methods, each submitting the results of its examination to the scrutiny of an interested and critical public, among whom are experienced mathematicians and statisticians, as well as industrious seekers for some weak spot for attack; when all this is borne in mind, it is not difficult to accept the truth of what I say—that an enterprise which can run the gauntlet of an annual inquisition, and come out unscathed, is entitled to confidence and respect as no other enterprise can be.

And discussing the "ideal life insurance company": It is, first of all, one whose officers and directors are high-minded, honorable, experienced and skillful men, who have no aims in the business other than to subserve the interests of the policyholders.

Nothing, in my opinion, is so important as character in the management. As President Roosevelt succinctly expressed it in a recent address: "It is character that counts." I do not mean mere honesty in the handling of money. That is a very inadequate criterion of character. The officer who would, for the sake of outstripping a competitor in business, pursue a course which he knows to be prejudicial to the interests of the policyholders, has not the kind of character to which I refer. The officer who would deliberately take dangerous chances in order to make his wares cheaper than his competitor, has not the kind of character to which I refer. The officer who would knowingly adopt

deceptive measures, or encourage his agents to do so, has not the kind of character to which I refer. These illustrations might be multiplied. These given are sufficient to make clear what I mean.

This subject of character—I might call it the character of a gentleman—I consider one of the most indispensable attributes of one directing the affairs of an institution like ours—perhaps the most sacred of all secular undertakings.

The ideal company should conduct the business for the exclusive benefit of the policyholders; in other words, on the mutual plan. It matters not whether the company is organized with or without stock capital. This is a mere question of control or statutory requirements.

The fact is that I know of no form of corporate government so well secured against improper use of power as that of the life insurance companies. The abuses common among the industrial, transportation and other commercial combinations are not only practically impossible among life insurance companies, but the opportunity for personal aggrandizement, which lies at the root of those evils, does not exist among us.

The ideal company should have as low an expense rate as is compatible with a broad and liberal conduct of the business. And this opens up a wide question. Life insurance is essentially a benevolent institution. Transacted on the mutual plan, it is conducted for the benefit of none but the policyholders. Within reasonable limits a largely extended business is to be desired. A large business, with a large office force and many agencies, entails a certain amount of expenditure. But this expenditure, prudently restricted, is amply offset by the advantages obtained for the policyholders.

In the ideal company, however, every effort would have to be made to confine the expenses to a minimum. Every one knows that if there were no agents there would be little business. It is desirable to extend the benefits of the institution to as many people in the world as possible (and

who can question it?) agents must be employed to do it. How to be fair to these agents and at the same time just to the policyholders is indeed a grave problem for the ideal life insurance company.

In my opinion, the ideal company should have a large and widely extended business. This does not mean that the many small and well-managed companies are not entitled to respect and confidence. On the contrary, I believe that it is the duty of the large companies to be friendly and helpful to the small companies that are carefully and soundly managed. The point is whether these same companies would not more thoroughly fulfill the object of their existence if they did a large and widely extended business. What is the motive of doing any business whatever on the purely mutual, unselfish, benevolent plan? I can see no legitimate motive possible but to benefit the people. If, then, it is well to do this thing to benefit the people, it is well to do as much of it as is possible within the limits of doing it well and with the best results for the beneficiaries. The larger the business transacted under proper conditions, the greater opportunity there is to secure the best talent. Mediocre business commands mediocre talent; and capacity is of great moment in this business. The more widely the business is extended the greater opportunity is secured for the offset of advantages against disadvantages. When a business is done on a large scale in many parts of the world, questions which would otherwise be grave sink into insignificance. If there is an excessive mortality in New York, there may be at the same time a favorable mortality in New Orleans, it is the law of averages that a corresponding condition of salubrity will exist in some other region. And it is by combining the experience in a vast business in widely separated regions, under differing conditions, that the best average results are to be obtained, and consequently the greatest degree of safety. Wider reputation also is secured by the establishment of a company's credit over the world, and one influence reacts on another, so that it becomes easier to obtain business on normal terms. A large business makes it possible to multiply facilities at the

lowest cost pro rata, and works for economy, it necessarily employs a greater number of men, and thus furnishes a school from which the most efficient talent may ultimately be selected for the higher interests of the institution. A business on a large scale makes the company a center for the converging of the most desirable investments, as well as a distributing center useful in the most emphatic way for borrowers who furnish recognized security. Indeed, there is the instrumentality for the wise distribution of wealth among the masses, in various ways, which approaches the life assurance business with its great accumulations, which are required to be held, and which until needed are constantly being loaned to the public or invested in enterprises which operate for the public benefit. It were feasible to compel every man to assure his life (which, of course, it is not), it would be almost a complete method for adapting the wealth of the world to the greatest needs of the greatest number.—Town Topics.

—There are no less than 3282 different species of fish inhabiting the waters of America north of the isthmus of Panama.

WINTER Carriages

Catalogued Below Consist of

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